

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1892.

The Week.

It is very much to be regretted that the House of Representatives, which is controlled by Democrats, should have passed a bill empowering the President to lay an embargo upon Canadian vessels passing through the St. Mary's Falls Canal. Whether there is any ground for an embargo at all we do not undertake to say, but if there is, it ought not to be left to the discretion of the Executive. One of the most objectionable features of the McKinley Act was that empowering the President to levy or remove duties in his discretion; and the dangerous character of the power was shown at once by the results of imposing a duty upon Venezuelan coffee, which caused an exportation of gold that we were ill prepared to meet. No doubt it will annoy the Canadian Government to have President Harrison forbid vessels owned by its subjects to pass through our canal, and it will no doubt injure the owners of these vessels. But it is well to consider that there may be other results brought about besides the gratification of spite, and that the sudden stoppage of an artery of commerce will have serious effects upon the market prices of grain and the rates of transportation. It is conceivable that a President of broad views and enlightened mind might exercise a discretion of this kind wisely and with advantage to the country, but such an executive would be the last to consent to be charged with such a power. As to President Harrison, it will scarcely be contended that he has displayed either a judicial disposition or a generous spirit in his international bickerings, and he has already written a most intemperate message upon the subject about which he is now empowered to exercise his discretion. The bill, which was passed in the Senate as it came from the House, "without explanation or discussion," is humorously entitled an act "to enforce reciprocal relations with Canada."

The objection was raised that this bill might be regarded as abrogating the treaty with Canada by virtue of which our vessels are permitted to navigate the St. Lawrence and to use the Canadian canals. To this, Mr. Blount of the Committee on Foreign Affairs rejoined that he did not know whether it would or not. Apparently he cared as little as he knew; and to the suggestion that it might be disastrous to American interests to annul a treaty upon which our navigation of the St. Lawrence depended, he replied that we could deal with that question when it arose. It would certainly be an

awkward question to deal with now, for the interruption of this commerce would produce a convulsion in the grain markets of the world, and could scarcely fail to be disastrous to the farmers of the West.

The only ground for criticism upon the appointment of Mr. George Shiras, jr., of Pittsburgh to the vacant place on the Supreme bench is the fact that he has never had any judicial experience. There is a strong feeling that a seat in the highest court should come as the reward of proved capacity for such service on a lower bench. At the same time experience has shown that lawyers who have never had judicial experience often take the first rank when they are suddenly elevated to high judicial position. A notable illustration is Justice Gray of the United States Supreme Court, who was made Chief Justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Court without any previous service on the bench. Mr. Shiras is well known to his profession, and highly esteemed for the qualities which go to make a good judge. His appointment gives Pennsylvania a representative in the highest court for the first time since the retirement of Judge Strong on a pension in 1880. Mr. Shiras could not have had a more favorable introduction to a nation unfamiliar with his name than was furnished by Don Cameron's attempt to defeat his confirmation. There can be no stronger recommendation of a Pennsylvanian for the bench than the fact that one or other of the Pennsylvania Senators—they are emphatically "two of a kind"—does not like his nomination. Opposition from such a source is in itself a tribute to character.

It is a source of peculiar gratification that the most telling of all blows dealt at the Anti-Option Bill should have come from the representative of a cotton State. If, as now begins to seem probable, the Hatch Bill is to be speedily buried, the credit will be in no small measure due to Senator White of Louisiana, whose lucid argument of last Friday, all the more weighty because of his acknowledged familiarity with cotton production, left scarcely a shred to Senator Washburn's tissue of misstatements and fallacies. It is very possible, however, that the example of independence and honesty offered by the Louisiana Senator was more effective even than his explicit arguments. The measure never had a moment's chance of passing on its merits. The discussion in the House, hampered though it was by the preposterous application of the five-minute rule, was almost absurdly one-sided; but the speeches against the bill were shots fired in the air. Mr. Hatch merely invoked the farming interest, and every Representative with a farming constituency came meekly up to swell the bill's majority.

The Congressional Committee which conducted the inquiry into the affairs of the Pension Office has presented two reports to Congress, one from the majority, recommending "that Commissioner of Pensions Green B. Raum should be removed from office by the President," and the other from the minority, stating that the investigation exculpated Mr. Raum from all blame and showed that the efficiency of his bureau was of a high order. A sample of the defence is the statement that no evidence can be found to show that Raum, in his actions as Commissioner of Pensions, ever favored George E. Lemon, the claim agent, and that his relations with Lemon were perfectly proper. Even if the former assertion is true—and the evidence points the other way—does that excuse Raum? It is an admitted fact that Raum had as an endorser for his note of \$12,000 this claim agent, who has a larger business than any other before the Pension Office. That it is not easy for Raum to borrow money is shown by the fact, brought out in the investigation, that John W. Thompson, President of the National Metropolitan Bank of Washington, and one of the most substantial business men of the city, refused to lend him \$500 without an endorser. To attempt to explain this refusal on the ground of private enmity is absurd. Raum went to him as president of a bank, and Thompson refused to let him have the money because his credit was not good. It was palpably Lemon's interest to accommodate Raum, and it was palpably improper for Raum to be under obligations to Lemon. The episode by itself shows a moral obtuseness on Raum's part inconsistent with the qualities necessary for the proper administration of a bureau which disburses such enormous sums of money as the Pension Office distributes each year. It must be observed, too, that Lemon, whose testimony would have been so valuable, found it convenient to spend the winter in Europe, and his return a few days ago and the probable early adjournment of Congress are coincidences that it would be interesting to have explained.

The President's son comes badly out of the investigation into the Yellowstone Park scandal. Nothing criminal is charged against him, but many things highly indelicate and improper. It is plainly in evidence that he has hung about the departments to get appointments and contracts for personal friends. His function as an influential go-between was so clearly recognized by the "promoters" who wanted to oust the old contractor that they set apart \$5,000 in stock for his benefit as only a natural reward for his services. The reluctant witness through whom this fact was brought out

said that he "did not know whether Mr. Harrison rendered the service or not, nor whether the stock was requested by him [the witness] to be issued for services or as a gift." Afterwards, he testified, the President's son "deprecated the issuing of it to him or for him." This affair would not be so bad in itself did it not come as the culmination of a long series of acts on the part of young Mr. Harrison by which he has assumed to have a mighty official influence and to be ready to use it for personal and political ends. He comes honestly by his willingness to use the public service for the good of his family, but he has shown a bumptiousness and pushing for notoriety which are all his own.

A difficulty occurred in the hall of the House of Representatives one day last week resulting from the attempt of one Devlin, who calls himself "Executive Committee of the Knights of Labor," to instruct Judge Oates, Chairman of the House Committee investigating the Homestead troubles, how he should conduct the investigation. This attempt was not particularly successful or encouraging to a repetition of the same, and it resulted in the ejection of Devlin from the hall. Now Mr. Devlin has given his version of the affair to a representative of the United Press, and it confirms substantially the report as first published. The difficulty arose in this way: Devlin wanted to interrogate the Pinkertons at great length regarding the sending of their men to Homestead, and also as to the business carried on by the Pinkertons both now and heretofore. These questions covered a vast deal of ground and called for statistical information which could not be given off-hand. They also involved abstruse questions of law. They were presented on typewritten paper. The Committee consented to adopt the questions as a part of the examination, and then took an adjournment in order that the members might go into the House and vote on a pending bill, the written questions being turned over to the Pinkertons for answer. Now it appears from the statement of Devlin that his grievance consisted in the fact that the Pinkertons were allowed time to prepare their answer. His idea of the fitness of things was that the Pinkertons should have this long string of questions put to them suddenly, so that they might be thrown into confusion if possible—not being ready with an answer in every case. This grievance so weighed upon Devlin's sensitive nature that when the Committee met again, he accused Judge Oates of purposely making an adjournment in order to give the Pinkertons time to prepare their answers. That was not true, and Devlin's impudence in making such a charge led to his being called a liar. It seems never to have occurred to him that it would have been a perfectly proper thing for the Committee to give the Pinkertons time to prepare truth-

ful and intelligible answers, and to adjourn for that express purpose.

The reply of the Pinkertons to the various charges and the violent abuse heaped upon them since the Homestead rioters unlawfully attacked and wilfully murdered several of their number, has been published. It shows that they were, at all the stages of the Homestead proceedings, pursuing a lawful calling, by lawful means, and that they were attacked by the rioters before they had even taken up the arms and ammunition that had been sent in boxes for their defence against attack. Yet for two weeks past the public ear has been filled with outeries against the Pinkertons as though they were a tribe of barbarian invaders intent upon sacking peaceful homes. A Senator of the United States, who is also a lawyer, has charged upon them the crime of treason, which consists only in levying war against the United States or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. The whole question involved in the employment of the Pinkertons is whether the owners of property have a right to protect it. Everybody knows that the Pinkertons are employed as watchmen only in cases where the public authority is dilatory in affording protection. People whose property is in danger of attack and who are prevented by violence from having access to it, would always prefer to have public rather than private guards to protect them. The cost of the former is paid by the whole community, while that of the latter falls on the individuals who hire them. Moreover, the public guards, being in overwhelming force, are seldom resisted, while the Pinkertons are always resisted, and sometimes, as in the present case, overpowered and infamously maltreated. The affair at Homestead teaches the lesson very clearly that the way to abolish the Pinkertons is to abolish the need of them.

The attempt to assassinate Mr. Frick is a natural result of the attitude taken by the Homestead strikers. His assailant appears to be one of those "cranks" whose mental weakness makes them the easy prey of the preachers of anarchy, and whose love of notoriety is quite as strong as any desire to help the cause of "Labor." There seems no ground for supposing that the Homestead men had any direct connection with his crime, but the leaders who organized the attack upon the Pinkertons three weeks ago, and who have never expressed any regret for the act, are morally responsible for Berkman's performance. The leaders of the strike attacked the watchmen sent by the manager of the mills, and killed as many of them as they could; he simply tried to kill the manager who sent the watchmen. If it was right to murder the Pinkertons—and nobody among the strikers, from O'Donnell down, has ever

admitted that it was wrong—it was right and logical to try to kill the employer of the Pinkertons.

The weakness of the strikers' position has never been so fully exposed as in the pronouncement of the "Advisory Board" which appeared almost simultaneously with the attempt to murder Mr. Frick. "Capital" has never presented so one-sided and illogical a claim as this declaration of "Labor" that all the obligations in the relation of employer and employee are on the part of the former; that, while the employer cannot hold the employee in his service an hour longer than the latter is satisfied, the workingman has the right to demand continuous employment at wages which he himself fixes. All that is necessary to show the fatal weakness of such an assumption is that people shall stop and think about it, and Berkman has made this certain. It is easy to talk about arbitration of labor disputes, but there can be no arbitration when one side takes such a position as this and declares that it will never abandon it. If the Carnegie firm had announced that the condition precedent to any arrangement was an agreement by their employees to remain permanently in their service, the workingmen would have rejected the proposition as absurd and the public would have sustained the men in refusing it. In like manner the employer must reject the proposition that the workingman has a right to remain continuously in his service while owing a higher allegiance to the Amalgamated Association or any other authority, and the public will sustain him. The real trouble at Homestead is that the Amalgamated Association has become an intolerable tyranny. Mr. Carnegie himself has more than once yielded to unreasonable demands from it, when other employers, less anxious to curry favor, were ready to stand out against it. O'Donnell and his associates evidently thought they needed only to "put on the screws" and they could extort what they wanted once more. Mr. Frick recognized that the time had at last come when there must be a change, or else the management of the mills must be turned over to O'Donnell & Co.

Among the new men who have made a mark in the present Congress there is not one who takes a higher rank than Mr. Michael D. Harter of Ohio. Mr. Harter is a business man and a manufacturer who unites practical knowledge with theoretical training, and who in addition has first-rate debating powers and undaunted courage. Such men are rare everywhere. When found, they ought to be kept in Congress or promoted to higher positions. Mr. Harter has been gerrymandered into a strong Republican district, but he is not going to pass out of public life without a fight. It is to be hoped that the people of the new Fourteenth District will have some

local pride in a Representative who has taken so honorable and praiseworthy a position as Mr. Harter occupies, having achieved a national reputation in a brief space of time and without adventitious aids, by sheer force of ability and with an eye single to public interests.

News comes from Georgia that the third-party people propose to make a dead set at Speaker Crisp, and, if possible, prevent his reelection to Congress. His district is said to be greatly tintured by the doctrines of the People's party, and a strong candidate has been named against him. Congressman Watson, the Alliance leader from Georgia, announces his intention to stump the Third District against Mr. Crisp, and to fight him at every point. All this is interesting as showing that the Speaker, in his efforts to conciliate the crazy sentiment of his own district and State, has really accomplished nothing except to bring his party into the greatest peril. He has simply been one of the many members of this Congress who have preferred to sacrifice the party to their own supposed interests, his position as Speaker making his example especially conspicuous and pernicious, just as it has made his disregard of the general party interest the more inexcusable. If he has now learned the old lesson that political lunacy can never be placated by half-way concessions, but must be fought and crushed from the start and all the way through, his experience will be of some value to him and probably to the country.

The Treasury's report of gold exports and imports for the fiscal year (to June 30, 1892) shows, somewhat contrary to the general belief, that we have received from abroad during that period within \$500,000 as much gold as we have sent out. As the annual gold product of our mines averages about \$33,000,000, and the annual consumption of gold in the arts about \$14,000,000, it follows that there is something like \$18,000,000 more gold in the country now than there was a year ago. In seven out of the fourteen years since 1878, we have imported more gold than we have exported, and our net gold import balance for the whole period is fully \$100,000,000. But it may be profitable to notice that the greater part of our net imports of gold came in 1880 and 1881. These were the years of specie resumption and the reinvestment of European funds in American securities. They were preëminently the years of foreign confidence in the stability of our national finance; a confidence due to the wise measure of resumption, and attended, not alone by the investment of Europe's money in our enterprises, but by the depositing on this side of large credit balances for use in either our loan or security markets. The recent phenomenon of our gold exports has brought into relief one impressive fact, that the juggling and

tinkering with our currency at Washington has done much to destroy this confidence, and to encourage foreign creditors in drawing out and carrying off their American balances the moment they can discount their bills receivable on the exchange market. People are in the habit of calling these exports abnormal. On the contrary, they are as normal as the usual action of any cautious depositor whose bankers have been distinguishing themselves by financial recklessness.

The prospectus of a Divinity School just founded at Boulder, Col., reveals a novelty worth attention. The School is to be non-sectarian, not only in the sense of being under the control of no particular denomination, but also in the actual representation and coöperation of representatives of several different denominations in its direction and teaching. Of the Faculty so far as chosen, two are Baptists, two Episcopalians, and one is from each of the following churches: Congregationalist, Disciple, Presbyterian, Unitarian, and Universalist. Such a union of diverse elements for the work of theological education is probably unexampled in this country or any other, and must be taken as a striking proof of the decay of the sectarian spirit. Its occurrence in the West makes it all the more notable, as denominational prejudices are always strongest in a new country.

The London *Lancet* publishes the proceedings and debate which took place at a meeting of the Society for the Study of Inebriety, on the subject of the Bichloride of Gold Cure, the headquarters of which are at Dwight, Ill., and the high priest of which is Dr. Keeley. The chairman of the meeting said that a project was on foot to start the bichloride of gold business in England on a large scale, a syndicate having been formed to raise £150,000 as a working capital. The Society had thus been induced to look into the subject. The first thing done was to procure a bottle of the Keeley remedy and analyze it. The analysis showed that it contained no gold and no chlorides. It consisted of water 61 per cent., sugar 6 per cent., alcohol 27 per cent., together with some mineral salts, principally lime. The whole decoction was a liquor as intoxicating as port or sherry. Dr. Usher of Melbourne, Australia, described a visit that he made to Dr. Keeley's sanatorium at Dwight. He said that Dr. Keeley seemed very uneasy while he (Usher) was asking questions concerning his remedy and mode of treatment, and referred him to his "chemist," who was a boy in the Doctor's employ. The meeting adopted a resolution declaring that any so-called "cures" for inebriety the composition of which is not disclosed, are unfit to be commended by honorable members of the medical profession; also, that the contents of the bottle that had been analyzed, and which purported to be bichloride of gold,

were unfit for the medical treatment of inebriates and should be unreservedly condemned.

In the Buenos Ayres *Standard* of May 31 is published a copy of a letter addressed on December 24, 1891, to the United States Minister in the Argentine Republic by the Minister for Foreign Affairs of that country. It relates to the question of reciprocal trade, and is a reply to various notes and verbal communications of our Minister on that subject. The point of the answer is, that the Argentine Government cannot afford to surrender any of its customs revenues unless the United States should offer the equivalent of a free market for Argentine wool, and that, if a duty is laid on Argentine hides, under the terms of the McKinley Bill, retaliation will be made in the shape of an extra duty on American lumber. A highly significant fact is brought out in the letter:

"Your Excellency intimates," writes the Foreign Affairs Minister, "that, should these negotiations not be accepted, President Harrison will enforce the McKinley Act, suspend the free importation of Argentine hides, and enforce the duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem."

If the President authorized such a threat, then he has violated the law by not fulfilling it. Section 3 of the McKinley Bill says that "whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied" that duties which "he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable" are levied by another government on our exports, "he shall have the power and it shall be his duty to suspend," etc. Now, it is clear that the process of "satisfying" and "deeming" which the law contemplates as going on in the President's mind, must have been completed at the time he made the threat above recorded. If so, it was his sworn "duty" to go ahead and enforce the law regardless of threats of counter-retaliation, and without the fear of New England shoe-manufacturers before his eyes.

Brazil has been having her own troubles from riots and insurrections, and the President has had to call out the troops on several occasions and declare martial law. His exercise of discretion in that way has been called in question in some quarters, and a bill has been introduced by one Congressman to make it unlawful for the military to be called out to suppress a riot unless the rioters shall number 10,000. There may be a suggestion here for our own labor legislators. We presume that such a provision would be entirely acceptable to the riotous miners in Idaho, or to the Homestead strikers. Indeed, we suppose that strikers who were anywhere trying by force to prevent other men from working would be ready to certify their numbers to the Governor, if such a law were passed, and to guarantee them to be less than 10,000. To make the law perfect, however, it would be necessary to provide that no more than 5,000 troops should ever be brought against the 10,000 rioters.

MR. CLEVELAND IN NEW YORK.

THE official Democratic notification ceremonies in the Madison Square Garden on Wednesday evening of last week mark an innovation in campaign methods, the custom hitherto having been for a committee appointed by the National Convention to meet the candidate in his home or office. Politicians of both parties have awaited the result of this new departure with no little curiosity, as upon its success or failure may depend the practice of both parties in future. We think the general conclusion will be that it was a great success. There is a certain appropriateness in allowing the masses to witness a ceremony of so much significance, instead of restricting the attendance to the few party leaders who are all that can be admitted to the ordinary parlor or office. As regards the partisan aspect of the affair, it must materially help in giving the Democratic campaign a good start. It demonstrated more conclusively than ever the hold which Mr. Cleveland has won upon the masses of the people—the hold by means of which he secured two-thirds of the delegates to the National Convention, despite the best-laid schemes of the professional politicians of his party. It showed that this hold was especially strong in New York city, where the opposition of the professional politicians to his nomination was most pronounced. The truth is, that there is no place where Mr. Cleveland is stronger among the business classes and the laboring men than in the metropolis, as the election returns of this city next November will conclusively demonstrate.

Mr. Cleveland's speech was appropriate to the occasion—dignified, forcible, and frank, like all of his utterances. The Democratic platform declares that "the Federal Government has no constitutional power to impose and collect tariff duties except for purposes of revenue only." Mr. Cleveland, in his speech, touched upon this subject in the following words:

"We oppose earnestly and stubbornly the theory upon which our opponents seek to justify and uphold existing tariff laws. We need not base our attacks upon questions of constitutional permission or legislative power. We denounce this theory upon the highest possible grounds when we contend that in present conditions its operation is unjust, and that laws enacted in accordance with it are inequitable and unfair."

The Republican newspapers are seeking to turn the tariff discussion on the question of constitutionality, as though, if it were once proved that a tariff for other purposes than revenue was constitutional, the battle was already won. We think that Mr. Cleveland has taken the right position on this question, and that it is not in any way out of harmony with the platform of his party.

A question somewhat similar has been raised in the discussion of the Anti-Option Bill now pending in the Senate. This bill purposes to drive out of business certain persons engaged in a lawful trade—i. e., those who buy and sell grain, cotton, and

provisions for future delivery, by imposing upon them a special tax. This tax is intentionally put so high that it will not yield any revenue. To whatever extent it produces an income to the Government it will fail of its purpose, which is to prevent option trading altogether.

Now, this bill is assailed as unconstitutional, and justly so, for if it be constitutional to extinguish one trade or calling by law, any other may be uprooted in the same way whenever a majority can be found to apply the axe to it. Our Constitution was preëminently designed to protect the rights of the minority. The many can always protect themselves, but the few require the safeguards of the fundamental law. This Anti-Option Bill is certainly unconstitutional in the sense that it violates the spirit of the Constitution and invades private rights in a dangerous and outrageous manner. Yet the Supreme Court held in a parallel case that the judicial power could not inquire into the intentions of Congress in imposing a tax, and that if injustice had been done, the only remedy was in an appeal to the legislative power which had inflicted it. This was in the case involving the 10 per cent. tax on State banknotes. The court held the tax to be not unconstitutional. Therefore, it is constitutional, according to the decision of the highest tribunal, and every citizen is concluded by it so far as his overt acts are concerned. But is anybody concluded by it as regards his opinions and his political action? Clearly not. Everybody is at liberty to say that he considers the tax on State banknotes, and the tax on oleomargarine, and the proposed tax on option trading unconstitutional.

We find the highest authority for this view in the celebrated debate between Lincoln and Douglas. Mr. Lincoln held that the Dred Scott decision, although pronounced by our highest judicial tribunal, was not binding upon the minds and consciences of the people. A large part of his argument in that Senatorial campaign was directed to the point that the public ought not to acquiesce in that decision, but ought to protest against it and vote against it at every opportunity. He admitted that as an inhabitant of the United States he was bound to submit to all its laws as interpreted by its courts. He would not resist the officers of the courts, however mistaken and erroneous he might think their rulings to be, but he would not allow them to bind his conscience or his political action. Douglas denounced Mr. Lincoln's position and accused him of inciting rebellion against law and Constitution, but Mr. Lincoln overthrew him completely by showing that he (Douglas) endorsed and stood upon a political platform which declared that Congress had no constitutional power to charter a United States bank, whereas the Supreme Court had previously decided that Congress had that power.

From these examples, which ought to be

current coin in Republican circles, it may be seen that no inconsistency can be charged upon those who hold that a tariff levied for other purposes than revenue is unconstitutional, even though there be an unbroken line of judicial decisions to the contrary. Of course the courts will not give a decision which would bring the functions of government to an end by stopping the collection of taxes. All that need be said by anybody is, that in his political action he holds certain opinions; and that while submitting to the laws, he seeks to make his opinions prevail in the affairs of government. That is every man's right, and civil liberty rests upon the constant exercise of it.

Mr. Cleveland said nothing on the silver question, for the very good reason that there was no occasion for saying anything. There is no issue between the candidates of the two parties on this question, and everybody recognizes that there is none. The strongest advocates of free coinage in the Democratic party admit that there is no hope for it if Mr. Cleveland is elected, and the strongest opponents of it among Republicans confess that there is no danger of such legislation in case of his success. Since the defeat of the Free-Coinage Bill in the House, nobody takes any further interest in the question as a practical matter, and it is relegated to the limbo of dead issues for this campaign.

CUSTOM-HOUSE STATISTICS.

WE are now sailing so very close to the wind in the matter of our gold reserve that it is not a little disquieting to read, in a note contributed by Mr. G. O. Virtue to the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, that the official returns of gold shipments are of questionable accuracy. In the case of Italy, Prof. Ferraris pointed out that the figures returned by the railway and steamship companies and the banks in 1885 showed imports of the precious metals 15 per cent., and exports 38 per cent., greater than the amounts returned by the custom-houses. In 1886 the discrepancy in the case of imports was only 7 per cent., but in the case of exports it was 82 per cent. A comparison of the French and English statistics for the fourteen years from 1871 to 1884, made by Soetbeer, showed that the French account of what was received differed from the English account of what was sent, on the average, by 25,000,000 francs, while the corresponding difference in England was 44,000,000. In our own case the Director of the Mint declares his belief that a great deal of gold is brought into the country of which the Custom-house knows nothing, although his reasoning is not very satisfactory. Mr. Virtue goes somewhat deeper into the matter, and has compared our exports and imports of gold for the last five years to and from England with the corresponding returns made in that country. Of course these tables ought to balance as closely as the opposite sides of an account in book-

keeping by double entry, for they purport to record the same transactions, with no difference except in name, as the value of gold is the same wherever it is.

Instead of this being the case, we find that the most inexplicable discrepancies exist. Our figures show that during these five years the United States shipped \$76,249,990 to England, while the English figures show that during that time they received from the United States only \$73,613,850, so that \$2,635,940 was lost on the voyage. On the other hand, the English claim to have sent over here \$28,672,187, while we acknowledge the receipt of only \$19,997,138. This is the amount of variation for the term of five years, but the variations during shorter periods, which are usually taken by financial journals for purposes of comparison, are both great and numerous. Thus, the English statistics show that from June to October, 1887, over \$8,000,000 was sent to the United States, while our statistics show the arrival of only \$4,000,000. Mr. Virtue has done well to call attention to this comparison, but he would have rendered the financial world a much greater service if he had gone to the bottom of the matter and stated the manner in which the precious metals are actually transferred from one country to another, and exactly how, when, by whom, and to whom returns of these transactions are made. When we have this information, and when the Treasury and the banks discriminate precisely in their returns between the various kinds of currency which they hold, we shall know where we stand financially much better than at present.

It is, unfortunately, by no means the case that Custom-house figures concerning the movements of the precious metals are peculiarly untrustworthy. On the contrary, as these metals are seldom subject to duty, there is less reason for undervaluing them than other merchandise, while the simplicity of their nature prevents uncertainty as to their price. It is not surprising, therefore, that discrepancies exist between the Custom-house returns of imports and exports of different countries to such an extent as to justify the old reproach that nothing lies like figures. At the time of the economic rupture between France and Italy, both the representatives of the Governments and the financial publications were for some time unable to reconcile the accounts of the trade between these countries that were furnished by their respective customs authorities, owing to different methods of classifying certain articles. Every country, it may be said, has its own methods of book-keeping as well as of levying duties, and before any trustworthy inferences can be drawn from comparing the returns of different countries it is necessary for the statistician to familiarize himself with numerous details.

The delusive character of the Custom-house figures even of a single country is illustrated by the *Économiste Français* in the case of French exports of linen yarns.

According to the report of the Custom-house, there were exported of these goods to Belgium over 8,000,000 kilogrammes, to England 1,775,000, and to Spain but 5,300. It is plain that the statesman who undertakes to regulate trade on principles of reciprocity would consider the trade with Spain of very little consequence, and that with England as of much less importance than that with Belgium. But, as a matter of fact, a great part of the export to Belgium is really to England, the goods being merely transmitted by Belgian railways, and the same is true of the Spanish trade, large quantities of these goods, after undergoing further processes of manufacture, passing back from Belgium through France on their way to the Spanish market.

The Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce at Lyons has recently published a book upon the French exports of silk which affords additional illustration of this uncertainty. These exports amounted in 1859 to 499,000,000 francs, but in 1861 they fell to 333,000,000, while the imports increased. Naturally the French protectionists cried out that the silk trade was ruined by the free trade of the Cobden-Chevalier treaty, and the coincidence was sufficiently startling to justify their alarm. But the explanation of the reduced figures was easily supplied. In fact, there was an actual reduction of silk exports, for the distress occasioned in this country by the outbreak of the civil war reduced our imports of silk from 111,000,000 francs (their average value from 1855 to 1859) to 25,000,000 francs in 1861. But at the same time there was a change in the mode of valuation at the Custom-house, the net weight being taken as a basis instead of the gross as formerly. When we consider that ribbons were commonly wound upon blocks of wood, it is not surprising that the valuation of this wood as silk had caused the export of ribbons from France to be returned by the Custom-house as greater than that of the entire product of St. Étienne.

The book to which we have referred contains many other illustrations of the pitfalls in the way of those who would reason from official figures, which it is unnecessary for us to quote. There is nothing that is more generally handed over to Government than the collection of statistics, and there is probably no part of its work which it does so ill. It is not very satisfactory for private persons to do work for themselves when they have paid the Government their money to do it for them, but we apprehend that chambers of commerce will eventually have to make the procuring of accurate information a more prominent part of their work if they are to preserve their usefulness. When it is considered that a statistical investigation, to be of value, must be conducted with the same rigid regard to the rules of inductive logic as a chemical research, the folly of reasoning closely from figures gathered by a professional politician, like the present Superintendent of the Census, is evi-

dent enough. So far as the quantity of statistics goes, no government ever furnished them to its subjects with greater liberality than our own, but no amount of misinformation can outweigh a single grain of truth. Quality is the desideratum in figures, not quantity.

THE DOUBTFUL FARM VOTE.

EIGHT farm organizations have become more or less merged in the present "People's party," all or nearly all of which have positively denounced the high-tariff policy of the Republican party. That circumstance alone makes clear the direction in which the prevailing farm unrest, especially at the West, is moving. We know, too, perfectly well what uneasiness the farm movement is giving the Republican leaders, and what hope to the Democrats in States which up to a very few years ago were reckoned staunch in their devotion to the Republican party. We cannot now say positively how those States will turn next November, but we can indicate, by aid of the census and recent election returns, how slight are the forces needed, when they act on the immense farm vote, to shift the balance of power in many of them. In the whole nation very nearly one-half of our 12,000,000 voters come from the "unprotected" farm.

Using the ratios of occupation as derived from the census of 1880, and applying them to the large vote thrown at the last election for President (except as to South Dakota) in each of the nine States named, we obtain approximately the following table:

	Whole vote.	Farm vote.
Illinois	747,686	367,004
Indiana	536,949	303,270
Iowa	404,140	251,566
Kansas	334,035	225,910
Michigan	476,273	215,994
Minnesota	263,306	151,693
Nebraska	202,632	128,430
South Dakota	77,607	41,035
Wisconsin	354,614	185,464
Total	3,397,242	1,870,371

In obtaining the table by carrying out the ratios for occupation, we have ignored some of the smaller fractions, and in the case of South Dakota have taken the vote at the State election of 1890, deriving the farm vote from the farm ratio of occupation for 1880 in the old Territory of Dakota. If the comparison could be made for the nine States on the basis of the vote and occupations of 1892 and 1890 respectively, the change would be little if any against the farmer, the growth of cities and large towns in States like Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and of the two large cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis being largely offset by the numerical increase of the farm vote in Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, and South Dakota. It will be seen that in

every one of the nine States, except Illinois and Michigan, there is a clear majority of the farm voters, their majority in the nine States being 843,500, and their ratio to voters in other occupations being more than 18 to 15. In most of the nine States cited the farm discontent is pretty active, and in several of them the Alliance has been exceedingly strong, two of them being now represented by members of that body in the Federal Senate. In all of the nine States, moreover, the farms, as a rule, are so far from factory towns, and the States themselves so remote from the East, that even the high-tariff "proximity" sophism as to the neighboring factory and farm loses, not its strength, for it has none, but all its speciousness as a campaign weapon.

Let us take the record of these nine States in detail. The State of Illinois, on the basis of the Republican plurality of four years ago, would require a change of only about 1 farm vote in 33 farm votes to give her electoral vote for Cleveland. Since 1888 she has gone Democratic and chosen a Democratic Senator. Indiana needs a change of 1 farm vote in about 258 on the basis of the vote of 1888, and since then has gone Democratic by 19,579 plurality. One farm vote changed in about 16 would give Iowa to Cleveland on the 1888 vote, and twice since then she has chosen a Democratic Governor. Kansas would need a change of about 1 farm vote in 11, but since 1888 her Democrats and Farmers' Alliance men combined have outvoted the Republicans by an immense majority. Michigan, under her new plan, will probably divide her electoral vote about evenly between Cleveland and Harrison. A change of 1 farm vote in about 8 would give Minnesota to the Democrats on the basis of the last Presidential election, and since then the Democrats and Alliance men united have run ahead of the Republicans some 55,000 votes. In South Dakota the situation is much the same, and Wisconsin needs a change of but 1 farm vote in about 18 to give Cleveland a plurality, reckoning on her last Presidential vote. Since then she has chosen a Democratic Governor by 28,320 plurality, and also a Democratic United States Senator.

Certain other disturbing forces cloud the result this year in these nine most distinctive farm States. For one thing, it will be noticed that the farm discontent, which used to appeal to the State Legislature for redress, has, during the past four years, turned as never before to the Federal Government, an awakening to the nature of the tariff abuse being one prominent incident of the change. Add other facts, mechanical, economic, and sentimental, such as "fusions," the silver heresy, the discontent of the Blaine men, secret-ballot laws, and we can understand why, for the first time since the civil war, the Republican strongholds of the West and Northwest—saying nothing of Ohio, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island—are beginning to shake. Their fall may not come this year, and, as

a mere question of political chances, New York may still hold her old place as the "pivotal" State. It remains true, nevertheless, that never, for many years, has the situation in the group of "farm States" been such as to create and to justify greater Republican anxiety. This is the case whether the Alliance men hold their strength, or whether, as seems far more likely, their organization fails and its voting elements drift to the party of tariff reform.

WHAT HOME RULE HAS COST THE LIBERALS.

THE general election of 1885 was the last before Mr. Gladstone made home rule for Ireland a part of the Liberal programme. The contest of 1886 did not show with certainty what the mature judgment of the country upon the new policy would be, although it proved beyond question that at first sight the voters did not like it. As a consequence of its adoption, a Liberal and Nationalist majority of more than half a million in the votes polled in 1885 was turned into a minority in 1886. The Liberals lost nearly half the English, a third of the Scotch, and a seventh of the Welsh seats they had carried only eight months before. In the House of Commons a Unionist majority of 120 replaced a Liberal and Nationalist one of 168. Still, it was quite possible to argue, as the Home-Rulers have argued, that many of these losses might have been due merely to the confusion and hesitation among the Liberal voters naturally resulting from so sudden and radical a change of front and the secession of so many prominent party leaders. It was not improbable that when the people had become familiar with the Irish side of the question, and when the dissatisfied Liberals had learned from experience that, as political conditions actually were, the only choice left them was between home rule and a Tory Government, they would decide to waive such objections to an Irish Parliament as they still had, and to support the nominees of their old party. It is therefore in the results of the election of 1892 rather than in those of 1886 that the effect of Mr. Gladstone's Irish proposals upon the relative strength and distribution of parties can most profitably be studied.

In making comparisons between 1885 and 1892 it must of course be borne in mind that under any circumstances a good many changes will take place in seven years. Subordinate and local questions always obscure to a greater or less extent the real verdict upon the main issue. The desire of a portion of the workingmen for an eight-hour law, the general disorganization and disturbance following the great strikes in the north of England, the stimulus which the discussion of local grievances in the London County Council has given to radicalism in the metropolitan constitu-

encies, the fear of disestablishment among the voters of the Kirk of Scotland, and the desire for it among Welsh Nonconformists, have all doubtless played their part in attracting or repelling votes. For six years, however, home rule has been the burden of nine political speeches out of ten. The newspapers have discussed it in its every aspect. During the late campaign all the prominent leaders on each side did their best to keep it to the front, and probably the sense of the country has been taken upon it as accurately as the sense of the country ever is or can be taken upon anything.

Comparing 1885 and 1892, it is obvious that the adoption of the home-rule policy has cost the British Liberals much. Allowing for the uncontested constituencies, the Unionist gain in the popular vote has been between 350,000 and 400,000 votes. The Liberals have lost votes (although not always seats) in every portion of Great Britain except in Wales and in the north-western and in one or two of the eastern counties of England. The Liberals now carry fifty-eight less British seats than in 1885, and, among British members, are in a minority of fifteen instead of having as formerly a majority of no less than 101. These are, of course, net losses. As the bye-elections indicated, there are a number of former Conservative constituencies in which the Liberals have gained strength in the last seven years. In some of these, in which the Irish vote is a considerable factor, the increase has been due to the home-rule issue. In others, where social or economic questions have interested the working-class, it has been rather in spite than because of its position on Irish government that the Liberal party has made votes. Whatever the cause, however, the Liberals have this year returned their candidates for one Welsh, three Scotch, and thirty-seven English constituencies in which Conservatives were successful in 1885. On the other hand, Conservatives and Unionists win fourteen Scotch and eighty-five English seats for which Liberals sat in the Parliament of 1885.

The gains and losses have been very unevenly distributed geographically. In Wales, which has national aspirations of its own, the Liberals have lost nothing by taking up the cause of home rule. They have even somewhat increased their popular majority, and have taken from the Conservatives one of the three seats carried by the latter seven years ago. In Cumberland, Westmorland, and Lancashire, making up the northwestern corner of England, the Liberals have gained thirteen Tory and have lost but eight Liberal seats. In the eastern and northeastern counties, although the Liberals are on the whole considerably the losers in the popular vote, they hold their own fairly well in seats, their net losses being but five. In London the Unionist majority in the popular vote, thanks principally to the increased Conservative poll in the

outlying portions of the Metropolitan district, is somewhat greater; but, exclusive of the University, which Sir John Lubbock carries over to the Unionists, they elect one member less, suffering a net loss of three seats on the south or Surrey side of the Thames, and making a net gain of but two in Middlesex. Outside of London, the southeastern counties sent but 12 Liberals, as against 63 Tories in 1885, and they now send but 8, against 67 Unionists. On the whole, however, the Liberal strength in England, except in those counties which lie south of the Mersey and west of a line passing through Warwickshire, has not been very seriously impaired. In 1885, exclusive of the counties referred to, the Liberals elected 166 members and the Conservatives 179. In 1892 the numbers stand: Liberals 159, Unionists 186. These portions of England return more than half the entire House and about three-fifths of the British members, and in them the net Liberal loss since 1885 has been but seven seats.

It is in the Western Midlands, in the West and Southwest of England, and in Scotland that the great changes have taken place. From the Mersey to the Channel and from the borders of Derbyshire to Land's End there were returned in 1885 78 Liberals and 37 Conservatives. In 1892 the Liberals lost 46, or more than four-sevenths, of the seats they carried in the earlier year, while winning but six seats from the Conservatives. In other words, the position of parties in the West and Southwest of England is now reversed. The Unionists have 77 members and the Liberals but 38. More than two-thirds of the entire Unionist net gains have been made in this portion of England, although it returns only about a fifth of the British members. Mr. Chamberlain's influence is evidently as strong as or stronger than ever. In his home counties of Warwickshire and Staffordshire the Liberals in 1885, when he was the hope of the Radicals and the dread of the Tories, carried twenty-six out of the thirty-one seats. Now they get but eight, or one less than they saved from the deluge of 1886. In Birmingham itself and in some of the neighboring constituencies more than half of the entire Liberal vote has followed Mr. Chamberlain into the Unionist party. In that neighborhood the resulting change of political strength is as great as would be required to make Vermont a Democratic or New York city a Republican stronghold.

In Scotland, too, although the overturning, when compared with 1885, is by no means proportionately as great as it was in the Birmingham region, the Liberal losses are at once very heavy and very significant. They have lost 14 of the 62 seats held by them in 1885, and have captured but three of those which returned Tories in the last-named year. The changes in the relative strength of the votes polled by the Liberals and their opponents is, however, the most

significant result of the Scotch polling. In 1885 the Liberal predominance in most parts of Scotland was overwhelming. Exclusive of the Universities, there are seventy Scottish seats. Of these in 1885 the Conservatives did not contest thirteen at all, and in each of fifteen others the Liberals had more majority than the Conservatives had votes. Now this is all changed. There was a Conservative or a Unionist candidate for every seat in Scotland, and in but six of the whole number were the Liberals able to poll two votes for one. Comparing the vote in the constituencies contested by Conservatives in 1885 and by Conservatives or Unionists in 1892, it appears that the Liberal vote fell from 241,093 to 216,404, while the Unionist rose from 151,691 to 182,551, thus cutting the Liberal majority of nearly 90,000 in 1885 down to less than 35,000 in 1892. The Liberal losses in particular constituencies were proportionately still greater; and, curiously enough, with the single exception of West Aberdeenshire, the greatest numerical loss was sustained by Mr. Gladstone himself in Midlothian. Scotland, of course, is still a Liberal stronghold, and that party elects more than two-thirds of the total members for the kingdom; but the party has now, as it formerly had not, a more or less well-organized foe in nearly every constituency, and in future the Scottish Liberals, if they wish to hold the seats to which they are entitled, must abandon the running of two or more Liberal candidates for the same place—an amusement to which they have been much given in the past.

The chief interest in the Irish elections of course turned on the showing the Parnellites might be able to make. The result proves that in the greater part of Ireland they are without strength. In Dublin city and county they poll two votes to their rivals' one, and carry four out of the six seats, the other two falling to the Unionists, who also gain three more seats in Ulster. Outside of Dublin the Parnellites elect members only in Waterford city, Clare, Roscommon, and Galway, and usually by majorities small as compared with those by which, as a rule, their nominees (when they had them at all) were beaten. An analysis of the returns reveals the fact that while there are Protestant Home-Rulers, a number of whom have seats in Parliament, every one of them has been elected almost exclusively by Catholic voters, for every one of the sixteen constituencies in which the Protestants are in a majority of the population return Unionists. Among the wealthier and professional classes there are probably a considerable number of Catholic Unionists, yet Nationalists of one faction or the other will sit for eighty out of the eighty-five constituencies in which Catholics are more numerous than Protestants. In three of the five exceptions, the Catholic majority of the population is so small that it is not

improbable that there may be a Protestant majority among the registered electors, while the election of Unionists for the St. Stephen's Green Division of Dublin city, and for the South Division of Dublin County, was in the former case certainly, and in the latter probably, due entirely to the factional fight which divided the home-rule electors.

PROHIBITION IN MAINE.

PORTLAND, MAINE, July 7, 1892.

A WEEK'S sojourn in this, the principal city of Maine, has given me an opportunity to study the working of the Prohibitory Law.

This law has been on the statute book of Maine for the last forty years (except that I believe it was repealed for two years shortly after its first enactment), and has constantly been amended in the direction of greater severity, so that it would seem that the most fanatical prohibitionist could ask for nothing more in the way of legislation, unless, indeed, the sale of liquor should be punished with death. The punishment for the sale of a single glass of liquor, even for the first offence, is fine and imprisonment for thirty days, the court having no power to modify this part of the punishment. There is an absolute prohibition upon the manufacture of intoxicating liquor for sale, upon the taking of orders for the sale of liquor by men travelling from place to place, upon the transportation of liquors with intent that they shall be sold by any person or to aid in their sale, and upon their sale in any form except by public authority; and all these prohibitions are enforced by the most severe penalties. Whoever sells liquors in any building, and the same are there drank (*sic*), is guilty of keeping a drinking-house and is to be fined \$100 and costs, and imprisoned sixty days; and this, apparently, for a single sale. Liquors kept for unlawful sale are contraband and are to be seized and destroyed. Magistrates are to issue search-warrants to search not only places but persons, for liquor. All places where liquor is sold and "all places of resort where intoxicating liquors are kept, sold, given away, drank [*sic*], or dispensed in any manner not provided for by law, are common nuisances." The statute does not say "public resort," and was undoubtedly intended to hit the case of private clubs, but I cannot learn that an attempt has ever been made to apply it to them. The statute is quite long and is full of the most drastic provisions for its more perfect enforcement. Where it is enforced, not only can no liquor be sold for drinking purposes, but no druggist can even keep alcohol for sale for any purpose whatever.

But as the Legislature realized that intoxicating liquors might be needed for "medicinal, mechanical, and manufacturing purposes," a State Commissioner is appointed to purchase such liquors and sell them to the various towns. Each town may (not must) buy liquors of such commissioner and appoint an agent to sell them, but only to residents of the town and only for the purposes above mentioned. And this is the only way to get liquor open to the general public.

It will be noted, however, that the prohibitions of the statute are all upon the sale, and not upon the use, of intoxicants. An attempt to prohibit the drinking of liquor by its lawful owner would be too great an infringement of personal liberty even for a Maine Legislature, and would probably be held unconstitutional by the courts. And so any man except

the very poor can order his liquor from Boston, have it sent him by express, and use it in his own family as he chooses.

Mr. Woodbury, a prominent banker of Portland, stated, in a paper published in 1881, that after inquiry at express offices and similar places, he should estimate the amount spent by Portland for liquor in a year at \$378,000. It must be more than that now. Portland has grown considerably in the last ten years, and has now a population of about 40,000.

In the country towns, or some of them, where public sentiment supports it, the law seems to have accomplished its object fairly well. In such towns a generation has grown up without any acquaintance with a public bar or a saloon; and this, in the case of a young man carefully brought up, is a good deal. But in the cities the law has notoriously been either evaded or openly disregarded, and public sentiment has been openly in favor of a very lax enforcement of the law. The hotels all had bars for the sale of liquor, although these were sometimes in the third story instead of the first, and in a room with a number on the door instead of without one. This was the case in Portland until two years ago, when Cumberland County, in which Portland is, elected a sheriff who has been making an honest and courageous attempt to enforce the law, and has absolutely suppressed the open sale of liquor. No reputable hotel-keeper or druggist now dares to keep it on sale, with the penalty of imprisonment staring him in the face.

But has this action of the sheriff stopped the illegal sale of liquor and diminished drunkenness? All sorts and conditions of men (except the veteran Neal Dow, the author of the law) to whom I spoke on the subject, agree that it has not. The police reports show plenty of arrests for drunkenness, but these arrests are no sort of indication of the amount of public drunkenness that exists. One of the policemen whose beat is in the lower part of the city, told me that he did not arrest one per cent. of the "cross-legged drunks" that he met; in fact, that he arrested no one for drunkenness unless the offender were *very* disorderly as well. The city officials would have no time for anything else if they were to arrest all the drunken men. On the occasion of the one visit I made, to Portland's fine park, at ten o'clock one morning, I saw under a tree by the side of the little lake around which nurses and children were paddling in boats, a man lying dead-drunk. The park-keeper told me this was a very common sight, and that every morning he picked up a lot of empty bottles.

The action of the sheriff has entirely changed the character of the liquor traffic. It is now largely conducted by men called pocket-peddlers—men who stand on the street corners with a bottle in one pocket and a glass in the other, and will sell you a drink in a doorway or a horse-shed. It has also changed the character of the liquor sold. Good liquor is not to be had by the average man. One of the principal of the illicit beverages is a deadly compound called "split," composed of alcohol and water.

My own experience may be of interest. Securing a young man who knew the town as a guide, I started out in the business part of the town at noon one day to see what could be got. We visited three stores or shops where legitimate business of some kind was being carried on. In the first we could get nothing to drink because the proprietor was at his dinner and the assistant could not leave his post. In the second we bought and drank a bottle of

lager (vile stuff it was). In the third we asked if we could get a couple of cases of lager next day if we wanted it, and were told we could. (Lager is expressly declared by the statute to be an intoxicating liquor.) Then we walked through two or three streets near the wharves and spoke to two or three knots of men on street corners or in doorways, and soon found a man who sold us, for thirty-five cents, a half-pint flask of (so-called) whiskey out of his pocket. I did not venture to taste this, as my guide assured me that it was liquid poison. All this was in the space of about half an hour. We looked for a pocket-peddler, but did not find one, it being the wrong time of the day. My guide told me that in the afternoon or evening we could find them readily.

Heretofore the question of prohibition has not generally been a political question, in the sense that the two great parties have taken opposite sides upon it; but the liquor-sellers and their hangers-on, needing that the officers of the law should wink at their breach of it, have generally attached themselves to the party in power in their locality, and so the Republican party, being in power in most towns in Maine, has generally controlled the liquor vote. But the present Republican sheriff of Cumberland County, refusing to wink at violations of the law, has driven the liquor vote solidly over to the Democratic party. And not only the liquor vote but an immense number of other citizens who, like Sergeant Stebbins, are "in favor of the law but agin' its enforcement" (and it is astonishing how many of these there are), will vote the same way. The sentiment is very generally expressed that the sheriff, the sworn officer of the law, has done very wrong in enforcing the law so strictly. The two principal papers of the town, the *Press* and the *Argus*, are carrying on quite a heated controversy on the subject. The *Press* (Republican) says that the sheriff is to be commended for so faithfully performing his sworn duty. The *Argus* (Democratic) says (July 5): "In driving out of the city the sale of beer and ale, Sheriff Cram brought in the sale of 'split' by bottle-peddlers, and made hundreds of our young men form that worst of all habits—the habit of providing themselves with a private bottle of whiskey." Both papers undoubtedly speak the truth.

The city election last March threw the entire city government into the hands of the Democratic party, and it seems to be generally conceded that the county election next September will go the same way—all on account of Sheriff Cram's enforcement of the law. How the law fares at the hands of those who are not in sympathy with it may be seen by a visit to the City Liquor Agency, established under the provisions of the law of which I have spoken. I stepped into the place one afternoon, and found two men behind a counter filling bottles as fast as possible. Large printed signs informed me that liquor was to be sold only to residents of Portland, and only for medicinal, mechanical, or manufacturing purposes; and that any false representation was punishable by a penalty of \$20. Men and women were pressing up to the counter faster than they could be served, so that they had to stand *en queue*. As some man, looking remarkably like the ordinary bar-room loafer of other States, would approach the counter, the following dialogue would be had:

Agent—What do you want?

Customer—Pint o' whiskey.

Agent—Bourbon or rye?

Customer—Bourbon.

Agent—Medicine?

Customer—Yes.

Agent—What's your name?

Customer gives a name and address, which are believed to be fictitious in the majority of instances.

Agent—Fifty cents.

While this conversation was going on, the agent would be filling the bottle, to save time, and at the end he would jot down, with pencil, the name and address on a sheet of paper lying on the counter. I stayed there several minutes, and saw a number of customers served; and the only attempt to provide that the law should be complied with as to the purpose for which the liquor was sold, was the stereotyped question and answer, "Medicine?" "Yes." Last year the Portland agency reported sales to the amount of \$57,333.30. This is probably much below the truth, as the agency is said to be a very profitable position; but assuming it to be correct, it probably represents at least one hundred thousand lies.

A prominent Republican lawyer, who has held high positions in State and city government, told me that prohibition not only did not prohibit, but was attended with three great evils: it made legislators hypocrites; it corrupted public officers; and it filled the courts with perjury. It has happened, so I was told, that Governor and legislators would get high on whiskey illegally sold on the evening of the very day when they had passed a stringent amendment to the law. Policemen and deputy sheriffs who would be proof against any bribe offered them in the matter of an ordinary crime, see no harm in taking money to wink at what they cannot see to be a crime at all; but, once in the habit of bribe-taking, they soon cease to draw distinctions between crimes. Just so it seems to many men a venial offence to swear to a lie for the purpose of aiding a friend who is likely to go to jail for doing what it would seem all men have a natural right to do; but when one has once begun the practice of perjury, distinctions between crimes are lost sight of.

My experience of Portland makes me believe that here, at least, prohibition increases rather than diminishes drunkenness, and that the lying, bribery, and perjury that necessarily accompany it are demoralizing the people. The little good that the law accomplishes in the way of preventing open sales of liquor is far outweighed by the great evils that accompany it.

R.

THE QUESTION OF ALSACE AND THE RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

PARIS, July 11, 1892.

In a preceding letter I endeavored to point out the various phases of the present political situation, the different causes that had worked together to bring it about, and the divers currents of opinion arising from it. This study was nevertheless incomplete, inasmuch as I treated only of home politics. In the case, however, of a country like France, surrounded, as she is, by neighbors whose military force makes them her rivals, the question of foreign policy is all-important. I profit, therefore, by the momentary lull in party warfare, and proceed to sketch the main lines of public opinion in relation to foreign affairs. Speaking baldly, and omission made of secondary issues, the mind of the country may be said to reflect friendship and understanding with Russia, and hostility towards Germany and her allies.

There is no need to dwell upon the consequences of the war of 1870, so far as the gene-

ral situation in Europe is concerned. It is only too evident that the Treaty of Frankfort opened a gulf between France and Germany. France could not reconcile herself to her defeat, nor yet make up her mind to the loss of her provinces. She therefore set about reconstructing her shattered power and her army, with the apparent intention of seizing the favorable moment to retake the territory she had lost. Germany, on her side, in order to maintain her superiority, continued *pari passu* to increase her existing armaments. And so for the last twenty years these two Powers have remained facing each other, like combatants watching each other's movements; officially professing peaceful intentions, and yet all the time amassing arms and men destined for war. Once, and once only, during this period, a kind of approximation and half-reconciliation has been brought about between them. In 1884 and 1885, at a time when the various European Powers were first specially interesting themselves in Africa as a field for colonization, a common interest and the desire to resist the exorbitant claims of England drew the Cabinets of Paris and Berlin nearer together. But this was only an interlude. Indeed, even if the French Government had seriously desired it, a lasting understanding with Germany would have been out of the question. Ever since the war, the vast majority, one might almost say the entire nation, of the French reckon among the first principles of their patriotism the hatred of Germany, the continuous protest against the Treaty of Frankfort, and the duty of liberating Alsace and Lorraine from the yoke which weighs upon them.

In order to assure her supremacy in Europe, Germany had need of allies. She therefore made overtures to Austria and Italy, and the result was the Triple Alliance. This diplomatic success was not obtained without creating corresponding difficulties. Forced, almost, to favor Austria's claims at the Congress of Berlin when this Power sought to improve its eastern frontier, Germany was the cause of Russia's losing a part of the advantage she deemed assured to her by her victories over Turkey in 1877-8; and, in consequence, the relations between Berlin and St. Petersburg became much less cordial. Lacking sympathy with the policy of the Triple Alliance, the Empire of the Czars grew naturally more friendly disposed towards the Power against whom the Triple Alliance was mainly directed. The progress of this friendship was marked by a series of minor diplomatic incidents, culminating in the visit of a French squadron to Cronstadt, and a display of cordiality between the two nationalities that was patent to all the world. Henceforth, the Franco-Russian agreement was an official fact. Though it would be impossible to state whether, in the real sense of the word, an alliance had been concluded, from the point of view of public opinion in France the distinction is of comparatively little importance. The Russian Alliance, as it is usually called here, produced a prodigious effect. For the country to feel that it was no longer alone, that, whatever might happen, it would have the support of an ally whose power was all the more dreaded as it was to a certain extent unknown—this, joined to the inborn love we French have of demonstrating, carried the national enthusiasm to a pitch not easy to describe. The travelling peddlers hawked about, even in the very heart of the country, symbolic chromolithographs in which the Czar and M. Carnot were represented exchanging a hearty grasp of the hand; not a choir but

learned the Russian national hymn, which the public always stood up to hear after the Marseillaise; and, by a singular irony of circumstances, certain ultra-radical newspapers, carrying as superscription and motto, "No God and no master," published, in the form of supplement, the text of this national hymn, which commences with the words: "God protect the Czar."

It must be admitted that there are people who do not share the general enthusiasm, and who warn their neighbors that the Russian Army would not, and could not, for technical reasons, take the field as our ally so readily as is imagined. They add that, so far as appearances go, it is not to the Czar's interest to favor France's revenge, since he knows it is only her hope of his help that attaches her to his policy. Those, however, who give utterance to these divergent opinions are mostly politicians by profession or high State functionaries; and their criticisms, expressed in society drawing-rooms, find no echo among the outside public. If we look at the small provincial newspapers, which reflect not unfaithfully the average middle-class opinion, we meet with an absolute confidence that the Czar is going to aid us against Germany, and that the Franco-Russian combination will suffice to crush our rival.

From the foregoing it might seem reasonable to suppose that the war feeling in France has been lately increasing in intensity. The hatred of Germany exists. The wish to recover the lost provinces exists also. Resignation to the *status quo* is still repudiated by the nation; and since it is believed that, both from a military and a diplomatic point of view, we are in the best possible situation for making war, why, may it be asked, should not the nation desire it? This reasoning is not altogether hypothetical. A certain number really argue thus; but compared with the whole population they are very few. Taken throughout, the country is thoroughly inclined towards peace. There are several causes of this apparent contradiction.

First of all we may notice the great restraining influence at present exercised by the fact of military service being obligatory upon all. When war directly affected only one part of the population, the other part, undisturbed in its daily avocations, might permit itself to indulge in more bellicose ideas—might, by the fact of its own immunity from the life-and-death risk, urge on a war for some trivial reason. Even those who then figured as combatants fought with the greater willingness, since military service was to them a trade. To-day all this is changed, and, except by the officers, the time spent in the army is regarded as a kind of tax which is necessary to be paid, but which one may be allowed to pay grumblingly. When we recollect that an army mobilization in France claims all the citizens who are between twenty and forty-five years of age, and that it leaves no family exempt, it is quite sufficient to explain why those who wish in their hearts for war are in a small minority. In addition to these personal motives are the reflections arising as to the probable nature of any future war. Then for the first time will come into use all the dread instruments of destruction that military science during the last twenty years has added to those already employed. With such arms on either side the slaughter will be increased tenfold. But, further, if only to make the issue definitive, no mercy will be shown to the vanquished, and, however much one may hope for and anticipate victory, one hesitates to engage

in so formidable an undertaking, especially as victor no less than vanquished is likely to be ruined by the struggle.

Last of all, and perhaps the most curious phenomenon to observe, the motives for which war might be desired seem themselves in a fair way to lose their original intensity. Let us leave out of count the small number of persons who think, openly or covertly, that France ought not to seek to get possession again of Alsace and Lorraine—manufacturers who fear the competition of Mülhausen or Colmar, Socialists who make light of the sentiment of patriotism, and who do not care whether the frontier is defined by the Vosges or the Rhine; these minorities are so inconsiderable that they may be neglected. Let us, on the other hand, repeat that our fellow-countrymen, almost to a man, declare it indispensable that France should recover the provinces she has lost—this, either from motives of sentiment, as, for example, that Germany, in annexing these provinces against their wish, violated the principles of abstract justice; or, again, from regard to the national safety, Metz in the hands of Germany being regarded as a constant menace. Let us, in fine, grant that, under present conditions, public feeling continues naturally to be very hostile to Germany. In spite of all, it may be asserted that the hatred against Germany, if it really still exists, seems to grow less crude and less unreasoning. A proof of this has been lately furnished.

A certain number of writers and public men, deploring the general situation in Europe and the armed peace which weighs so heavily on all sorts and conditions, and rightly judging the chief cause of this situation to be the difference existing between France and Germany, had published a series of articles in order to show that it was possible to escape from the difficulties that exist at the present time without resorting to all the terrible eventualities of war. One proposed an exchange of Alsace in return for a French colony; another, a money redemption; a third, the neutralization of the disputed territory. These projects, in themselves chimerical, were commented on in the French press in a very significant manner. Certain newspapers affirmed that it was impossible to dream of an amicable arrangement, "the hate of German for French being only equalled by the hate of French for German." But for the most part the press articles ran on these lines—that whenever and however we shall have come into possession again of the provinces that Germany has taken from us, we shall be quite willing to live on good terms with her; and if such an end can be obtained without war, we shall be only too delighted.

In quite a different order of ideas one sees a current of opinion which has existed now for some little time, and which may work in the direction of a better understanding between France and Germany. A German writer, who preferred not to reveal his name (rumor would have it that the author was a high functionary of the German Court, if not the Emperor himself), published a pamphlet, which was immediately translated into French, wherein he undertook to prove that the various European States would soon be ruined economically unless they combined closely in order to cope with the formidable competition of America. The same idea has since been taken up by other writers, and the opinion it embodies is perhaps destined to acquire a certain importance.

Such, then, are the chief phases of public opinion in France in relation to the sub-

ject I set out to treat. To sum up the foregoing in a few words, I may repeat that the hatred between France and Germany seems to grow less acute. Certain tendencies may be observed here and there that are capable of bringing about a reconciliation, though at a date still distant. To tell the truth, Germany seems in no wise disposed to abandon her conquests of 1871, nor France to cease reclaiming what she has lost. Moreover, the national claim in France may be considered to have all the more weight as it is the more calmly made; for, in spite of the enthusiasm called forth by the Russian alliance, no one here seems to desire war. S.

AMONG THE PSYCHOLOGISTS OF PARIS.

PARIS, June, 1892.

Of course, the phrase "Psychologists of Paris" suggests Hypnotism to the reader, and I use it with that intention. Paris has become, in a peculiar sense, the place to study Hypnotism, for the reason that much of the best work has been done here. Yet everybody knows the rivalry between Paris and Nancy, which has embittered many recent publications and turned the course of discovery into the channels of controversy. Everybody knows, too, that the theory of "Suggestion," as advocated by the Nancy men, is now the dominant explanation of the facts of the hypnotic trance.

No doubt it is because of the controversial turn recently taken by the discussion that the Paris professors are losing interest in the development which owed its first impulse to them—no doubt this, rather than the fact that the Nancy theory is more than holding its own against them. As Professor Ribot wrote me before I arrived, "Hypnotism is on the decline in Paris. Many of the serious men who formerly busied themselves with it think that it has been much abused in the last six months, and that it would be better to drop it for a time." This I found confirmed both by Charcot, who seemed content to use the sleep very moderately as a therapeutic agent, and by Binet, who, as will appear further on, is turning his attention to Experimental Psychology.

The Paris school, locally considered, has made a very important acquisition, however, in the person of Prof. Pierre Janet, called from Havre to the chair of Philosophy in the Collège Rollin. He is a nephew of Paul Janet, the philosopher, and is already well known as the author of 'L'Automatisme Psychologique,' a book in which he describes certain remarkable cases of "subconscious personality" developed among his patients at Havre. He now holds a position also in the Salpêtrière; and it is to him that I am indebted for the interesting day that I spent in the wards of this celebrated institution. In the Salpêtrière, Prof. Janet has found abundant means of confirming the facts, now classic, which he established in his earlier hysterical patients, Léonie, etc. He has a patient, whom I may call X, in whom the activities of the subconscious are readily and forcibly developed—a young, hysterical girl of remarkably bright and unaffected nature. The personality of the normal X is insensible to stimulations in certain regions of the skin and retina; the personality of the hypnotized X possesses these missing sense areas. She detects objects outside of her usual field of vision, feels the prick of pins where before insensible, etc. That is, the second personality gets experiences from nervous events which are inaccessible to the first personality. Further, X the somnambulist re-

members objects seen by X the somnambulist—objects which X the hysteric declares she has never seen. Again, the second personality, the somnambulist, replies by writing (with a hand hidden behind a screen) words, sentences, answers, of which the first personality is quite unconscious. Such facts, which I have no space to dwell upon, can be explained, it seems, only on the "sub-personality" hypothesis—unless we call it all fraud, and impeach the scientific honesty or capacity of many observers.

The Paris school, it will be remembered, distinguish three stages in the hypnotic trance—all abnormal or diseased conditions to which the nervous system is subject. These states are called catalepsy, somnambulism, and lethargy. The best brief exposition of these three "stages of Charcot" in English is Binet and Féré's 'Animal Magnetism,' in the "International Scientific Series." Recent criticism has tended to show that the methods of inducing these stages one after another may really be resolved into "suggestion," and that the stages are only degrees in profundity of the one hypnotic sleep. This much the Nancy school can certainly claim credit for. Janet distinguishes the stages—as every one must continue to do—as a matter of description and symptom, and in part resorts to the artificial system of signs, rubs, etc., formerly declared necessary for transferring the patient from one stage to another. Binet, on the other hand, has changed his mind some what since he wrote with Féré, as he himself told me—a change which may be seen in some passages of his new book, 'Les Altérations de la Personnalité.'

Prof. Janet has another patient (Y), also an hysterical woman, in whom the stages are very marked, and whom he seems to regard as more typical than those who show less variety of state. Nothing could be more definite than the lapse of Y into lethargy, or her rise into somnambulism, when the proper button is pressed; and the proper performance in each state appears when called for with the regularity of clock-work. But one cannot rid himself of the suspicion that it is all acquired machinery; that the magic "suggestion" works through sub-consciousness, exalted sense-perception, or the influence which Ochorowicz calls "psychic atmosphere." And this suspicion is strengthened when one has seen the utter lack of systematic performance in this respect shown by the patients at Nancy.

Prof. Janet's hypnotic method is very mild. He is a man of hardly more than thirty-five years, of great reserve force, evidently, but rather persuasive than commanding with his patients. He is also somewhat under the influence of the reaction spoken of above, not engaging this summer in new experimentation, and not caring, as he said, to take any part in the heated discussion on "criminal suggestion." The man, on the other hand, who is making his usual exhibition of hypnotic subjects before medical men is Luys, at the Hôpital de la Charité. He lectures on "Brain Functions, illustrated by Hypnology." This means a half-hour devoted to the exposition of Luys's views on cerebral physiology—pretty well known to everybody—and a half-hour given to the stock performances of stock somnambulists. There is nothing remarkable about either of these two parts, except their pretentious and sensational character—a point on which the best men, both among physiologists and psychologists, express themselves very freely. He did, indeed, give a sample case of criminal suggestion, but it was so lacking in the proper pre-

cautions against simulation that could Delboeuf see it (as perhaps he has), he could well take comfort from it.

Besides Charcot's lectures and clinics for mental diseases, an interesting course in the same subject is given this summer by Ball and Ballet at the Hospice St. Anne. Ballet, the lecturer, is one of the clearest and best speakers in Paris. His work is also cautious, solid, and sane, as those will know who have read his little book, 'La Parole Intérieure.' American students of the general subject will find it profitable to hear him and his colleague, especially as the clinique is rich in typical and instructive cases.

The new movement in Experimental Psychology proper has also reached Paris. A laboratory has just been opened in the Sorbonne under the auspices of the Hautes Études. Beaunis, the eminent physiologist, a man capable of the good psychological work shown in his recent book, 'Les Sensations Internes,' and in numerous articles, has been made director, and Binet joint-director. The recent studies of Binet on 'Insect Psychology' are published as the first fruits of this foundation: a subject which he intends to pursue at the International Congress at London in August. Ribot, although Professor in Experimental Psychology in the Collège de France, is not officially connected with the laboratory. In the words of Binet, "the laboratory is not for physiology—there are greater ones already for that—it is for psychology alone." In accordance with this wise determination, very little and very simple apparatus has been so far introduced. The only new thing, in fact, which will interest my readers is the Arsonval chronometer, a simple and apparently reliable substitute for the Hipp chronoscope. It is an adaptation of Hipp's principle without its complexity and clumsiness, and is made by Verdin in Paris, complete, with two reaction-keys and connections, for 350 francs—a very high price. This is the only laboratory foundation in France, and under its present direction we may expect it to do credit to the great institutions which it represents.

In another letter I shall speak of the Nancy school. J. MARK BALDWIN.

Correspondence.

THE HOMESTEAD RIOTERS AND PUBLIC OPINION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is refreshing to turn from the editorials of most of the dailies on the Homestead trouble to the treatment of the same topic by the *Nation*; but is not the *Nation* just a little inclined to attribute too much to the doctrine of "protection"? It is doubtful whether the Homesteaders have secured any "large measure" of sympathy outside of that expressed by the demagogues and their ill-informed brethren in the labor ranks. But, admitting that they have, what evidence is there that this is "because the country is at last awakening to the infamous abuses which go on under the name of 'protection'"? Is it not rather due to the attitude of the daily press and of the (Democratic?) politicians who obscure the real issue by denouncing "Pinkerton thugs," etc., and manufacture sympathy by making the rioters pose as oppressed workingmen?

Yours, F. W. STAEBNER.

LEBANON, N. H., July 20, 1892.

Notes.

BERNARD QUARITCH, London, will have ready in October an edition of 500 copies of Caxton's 'Golden Legend,' in three volumes, quarto, printed from type of William Morris's designing, with ornamental letters and borders also of his invention, besides two full-page woodcuts from designs by Burne-Jones. Mr. Morris and Mr. Frederick S. Ellis will edit the work, furnishing a glossary and some bibliographical memoranda. Caxton's 'Recuyell of the Histories of Troye' will be brought out in similar style in January, and his 'History of Reynard the Foxe' is in contemplation.

A new Goethe publication has been promised for the coming month. Almost three hundred letters of F. Riemer to members of the family Fromman in Jena have been collected by Ferdinand Heitmüller, and will be published with a preface and a commentary by him. The letters tell of the daily events in the poet's family and among his acquaintances in Weimar.

The latest bound volume of the *Century* extends from November, 1891, to April, 1892. Pictorially, the leading features have been the continuation of Mr. Cole's Italian Old Masters, and the *Century* Series of Pictures by American Artists. The story of the California Gold-hunters has received an interesting accession in the shape of letters written by W. T. Sherman during the rule of the Vigilance Committee. The chief serial fiction has been Dr. Weir Mitchell's "Characteristics" and Kipling and Balestier's "Naulahka." A paper sure to be referred to hereafter is Mr. Edward Robinson's discussion of the question whether the Greeks painted their sculptures. The visit of Padewski to this country is commemorated in the present volume in prose and in verse.

The local flavor of the *Overland Monthly* gives to the nineteenth volume, as to its predecessors, a special interest, which is enhanced by the generally photographic illustrations. A paper on "Mission Bells" is in point, and so is the disinterested account of the much debated Temescal Tin Mine—"An American Tin Mine," as Mr. Knight's caption reads, though he spoils all our fine feelings by counting it "a great gain and assurance of success that English capital has been enlisted here." Most delectable of all the contents we have found five autograph letters from ex-President Andrew Jackson to Congressman William M. Gwin of Mississippi, in all the splendor of their illiterate diction. The first is dated Christmas Day, 1840, and deplores the carrying of Mississippi by the "Abolition and Wigg Ticket" in the late Presidential campaign. In the fourth, Jan. 16, 1843, referring to J. Q. Adams's opposition to the refunding of the fine of 1815 for contempt of court in New Orleans, he says: "This poor, disgraced old man cannot by all his low bred insults arouse my feelings."

'Les Clouet,' one of the latest reissues from *L'Art* in the series of "Artistes Célèbres," is a most careful study by M. Bouchot, Librarian of the Bibliothèque Nationale, of the very little that is known of these artists and of their contemporary, Corneille de Lyon. The general result seems to be that nothing can be certainly attributed to the first Clouet and very little to the second or to Corneille de Lyon, though M. Bouchot thinks he has established a strong probability that certain admirable miniatures in a (French) manuscript of the Gallic War in the Bibliothèque Nationale are by Jean Clouet, and that the original crayon studies for them are now in the Musée Condé. These studies are strong and Holbein-

like portraits of celebrated Frenchmen who lived between 1515 and 1540, and, if they are really by the elder Clouet, show him to be a greater artist than his son, and much greater than he has hitherto been esteemed.

A careful study of abbreviations in Latin palæography by Zanino Volta has recently appeared in Italy ('Delle Abbreviature nella Paleografia Latina'). It contains a fairly exact reproduction of more than 2,500 of these abbreviations.

That versatile savant, Prof. Gustavo Uzielli, has for twenty years made a study of Paolo Dal-Pozzo Toscanelli, the great Florentine astronomer and geographer of the fifteenth century, whose letters to the King of Portugal in 1474 were the principal cause of Columbus's Western adventure, and who had previously urged the Portuguese to complete the circumnavigation of Africa. In a communication to the Florence *Nazione* of June 30, Prof. Uzielli enlarges upon the virtue of that city in Toscanelli's time as the centre of the great geographical movement of the age, and suggests that America might well have owed its name to Toscanelli rather than to any navigator. He is on the eve of publishing certain codices which will throw much light upon the history of geography in the fifteenth century, and will prove that Vesputius had no hand in fastening his name on the New World. Prof. Uzielli is a member of the Royal Commission for the current Columbus centenary festival at Genoa.

In view of the approaching anniversary of the discovery of America, the French Government has arranged in the National Library of Paris an exceedingly attractive and instructive exhibition of maps and globes illustrating the geographical notions which prevailed before and after the time of Columbus. They are for the most part rare originals which either belong to the library and to different departments of the Government or have been borrowed from private collections. We shall probably have occasion to speak of this collection somewhat in detail, and will now only mention a map drawn by Champlain in 1608, with more than a hundred maps giving the results of the expeditions of Joliet, La Salle, and other explorers in the region of the great lakes as far as Hudson's Bay and along the Mississippi and Ohio. There are also plans of North and South American towns, Puerto Rico, Quebec, Montreal, Rio de Janeiro, Saint Louis, Marietta, Pittsburg, and other places from the beginning to the close of the eighteenth century, and one of New York when it consisted only of a fort and a few mills on the south point of Manhattan Island.

That the proprietorship of a newspaper should pass uninterruptedly from father to son for a century and a half is a rare and noteworthy event in the annals of journalism. Such, however, is the case with the *Schlesische Zeitung*, which was founded by Johann Jakob Korn at Breslau in 1742, when this province had just been wrested from Austria and annexed to Prussia by Frederick the Great, and is still published by his lineal descendants. To celebrate this uncommon anniversary a volume has been printed entitled '150 Jahre Schlesische Zeitung 1742-1892: Ein Beitrag zur vaterländischen Kultur-Geschichte' (Breslau: Korn). It contains facsimiles of the first number, dated January 3, 1742, and of the proclamations issued by Frederic William III. in March, 1813. This work gives a succinct and remarkably readable survey of European history and of the progress of civilization during the period in question, especial-

ly as reflected in the columns of the venerable newspaper.

The first number of Prof. Karl Krumbacher's *Byzantinische Zeitschrift*, of which we noticed the prospectus in a recent issue, has now appeared. It is a well-printed quarterly of 184 pages, and contains twelve articles, one in English, one in French, and the rest in German, besides several literary criticisms and numerous notes. In a preface of a dozen pages the editor states the nature and purpose of the review as the organ of "Byzantinistics" in the broadest sense of the term, defines the limits and scope of this new discipline, and defends its claims to consideration for its own sake, independently of its scholastic relations to classical antiquity, for which it has been hitherto chiefly prized. The periodical is intended to embrace the entire intellectual life of the Greeks during the existence of the Byzantine Empire, extending over more than a thousand years, and Prof. Krumbacher's assurance that it shall be conducted in a strictly scientific manner is certainly fulfilled so far as the present number is concerned. The paper of most general interest is perhaps that on "Byzantine Art," by Prof. Strzykowski. The importance attached to the undertaking is evinced by the fact that the Royal Bavarian Academy of Sciences has made an appropriation for its support.

Vol. II. of the *Journal of American Ethnology and Archaeology* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is occupied chiefly by a very circumstantial account of "A Few Summer Ceremonials at the Tusayan Pueblos," adjacent to the similar habitations of the Zuñis, by the editor, J. Walter Fewkes. Dr. Fewkes also contributes a short report on the present condition of the famous Arizona ruin called Casa Grande. Both these papers are freely illustrated with process cuts, which, however, leave much to be desired in point of clearness. A third paper possessing no little interest is by J. G. Owens, on "Natal Ceremonies of the Hopi Indians."

In the *Critic* for July 9, Dr. Rolfe, the Shaksperian editor, commenting on the fact mentioned in a recent London newspaper that "young bar-tailed godwits are, in autumn, called scameles on the north coast of Norfolk," says: "If they have gone by that name ever since the days of Shakspeare, it is curious that the fact did not get into print sooner." Had he taken the trouble to look at the 'Century Dictionary,' he would have found this same definition given, together with a quotation to the same effect from Swainson's 'British Birds,' published in 1885.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July contains the conclusion of Dr. H. Schlichter's account of the African pygmies. In summing up the result of his investigations, he unhesitatingly rejects the theory that these creatures are simply the degenerate specimens of the tribes among whom they live, because of the great anthropological and ethnological differences between them and their full-sized neighbors. On the other hand, he is favorably inclined to the hypothesis that they are the remnants of the African aborigines. The recent pamphlet on the dwarfs of Mount Atlas is mentioned, but judgment on it is deferred, pending the publication of new evidence promised by Mr. Haliburton. Prof. James Geikie tells of recent researches in the Pleistocene climate and geography of Britain and Northern Europe, the paper being accompanied by a map. Of more general interest is a summary of M. Henri Dauvergne's explorations in the Pamir, during which he claims to have disco-

vered the true sources of the Oxus or Amu Darya in the enormous glaciers of the Hindu Kush. This is followed by a survey of what has been accomplished in British New Guinea within the past three years in exploration, from which it appears that there have been no additional discoveries of gold in paying quantities, though the fact that the general geological features of this part of Papua are "in a very considerable degree identical with those of Australia," would lead to the not unreasonable assumption that "mineral areas of great value may yet await discovery."

The petty lake region *par excellence* of Germany is partly delineated in sheets Nos. 9 and 11 of Vogel's Map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann), designated Stettin and Allenstein (Pomerania and East Prussia).

Mr. William H. Goodyear, Curator of Fine Arts in the Brooklyn Institute, has been invited to read a paper on his discoveries concerning the Egyptian lotus in classic ornament before the Ninth Oriental Congress in London, Sept. 5-12.

Prof. Edward S. Morse's essay "On the Older Forms of Terra-cotta Roofing-tiles," originally communicated to the Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., and afterwards printed serially in the *American Architect*, has been reprinted in the Bulletin of the Essex Institute and also separately. It is a study of great interest and practical and artistic value, and among the many illustrations are some drawn from the author's favorite Japan.

We have received the first number (for July) of the *American Monthly Magazine*, edited by Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth in the interest of the Daughters of the American Revolution, and published by the National Society of that name in Washington. It consists almost wholly of the Proceedings of the First Continental Congress of the Society, Feb. 22-24, 1892. Mrs. Benjamin Harrison presided, and her portrait is prefixed to the present issue of the magazine.

The July number of the *University Bulletin* issued by Columbia College contains the announcement that the final step (for the present at least) has been taken in the readjustment of the government of that institution to suit the changed conditions of its present development. Thirty years ago Columbia College was, like most other American colleges, of the four-year-course type; indeed, it consisted solely of its undergraduate department and of a very young Law School, although it had also a shadowy connection with the College of Physicians and Surgeons. To-day the Medical School has been made an integral part of the University, and a School of Political Science exists by the side of the School of Law; while the School of Mines has grown to maturity and is in reality a School of Applied Science and a School of Architecture also. The July *Bulletin* announces the establishment of a School of Pure Science, and also a strengthening of the School of Philosophy, which has charge of the courses in philosophy, philology, and letters. Beside these university schools stands the old college, now called the School of Arts. The difficult problem of governing a university under laws made for a college has been solved in this way: The trustees established a University Council to consist of the President, of the Dean of every school, and of another delegate from every faculty, and of two other professors appointed by the President. At first this council was merely advisory, but it now becomes the chief legislative body of the University, and thus the manage-

ment of Columbia is actually in the hands of a representative committee of its professors. Each school is managed by its own faculty in accordance with the decisions of the University Council. The instruction given in the School of Arts ceases with the junior year; and the senior is free to select his studies in any or all of the six University Schools.

The 'Exercises in Connection with the Presentation of the Ladd Observatory to Brown University' last October have been appropriately preserved in a little pamphlet bearing the above title. The Chancellor of the University, Col. William Goddard, presided on that occasion with much grace and dignity, stating in apt phrase the uses of modern astronomy and the intimate relation between that science and the common life of man. Following the Chancellor, Gov. H. W. Ladd, the donor of the Observatory, elucidated the conditions which had led him to make this munificent gift to the University, and President Andrews, in his able and pointed address of acceptance, insisted upon the material values of the higher training in science, showing how civilization in its practical efficiency is in the last analysis totally dependent upon the work done at the centres of learning. Prof. Upton, Director of the new Observatory, next gave account of the astronomical establishments of the earliest time, comparing and contrasting them with the finished structures of to-day, with their elaborate instrumental equipment for work of the last degree of precision; while the exercises were concluded with remarks by Prof. Pickering of Harvard on the gratifying outlook for the future of American astronomy; by Dr. Hastings of Yale, who told the interesting tale of the construction of the great object-glass with which the new telescope was supplied; by Mr. Brashear of Allegheny, who had done the optical work upon this fine lens; and by Prof. Rogers of Colby University, who made a forceful appeal for astronomy from the merely utilitarian view, and demonstrated that "the cultivation of the science of astronomy cheapens the production of cotton-cloth, of woollen goods, of calico, of machinery, indeed of every staple product."

—Though the thirteenth volume of Mr. W. C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (Putnam's) comes down to the middle of the year 1798, another volume yet must crown the work; and in the fourteenth, as we learn from a note on p. 445, apropos of Washington's referring to correspondence with Sir Isaac Heard, the editor will take occasion to present all that is known about the Washington pedigree. The political strain of the current volume is agreeably diversified by extracts from Washington's letters to the manager of his estates, showing the most minute oversight of the latter's reports, even to the scrutiny of individual delinquencies on the part of his slaves. Of nearly all of his "hands" he distrusted the common honesty, and he considered himself systematically robbed by them of such property as they could dispose of to white receivers in Alexandria. Their shamming illness, their slowness and inefficiency in working, are also dwelt upon. On the other hand, he complains of rascally and brutal overseers who treat slaves like cattle. The loss of a cook puts him in a painful dilemma, as he has resolved never to purchase another human being, and yet cannot hire white or black to direct his kitchen. To hold slaves or to go unserved was a general sad necessity in Southern society. The disgrace of Randolph appears in the correspondence of this period, and the public feeling over Jay's treaty; and

Washington's pungent notes on Monroe's 'View' are extended beyond the point at which Sparks, for some reason, stopped. They furnish some of the best reading in the volume. The growth of the "Federal City," and the speculative boom in it, are also glanced at, and there is much evidence of Washington's desire to see a national university established at the capital. His Farewell Address is printed from the original draft in the Lenox Library, on the same page with Hamilton's draft, which was followed in the main. We observe on p. 280 a reference to vol. i., p. 168, of Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's edition of 'Jefferson's Writings'—proof that this forthcoming publication is all ready to succeed the Washington on its completion.

—It appears that Marshal MacMahon has been occupying himself since his retirement from the Presidency of the French Republic in writing out the souvenirs of his long and active life. The Marshal is now eighty-four years old, and he bears his years lightly. The *Figaro* of July 2 publishes an interview with him from which we learn that his Memoirs are already quite finished. Four copies of them, in fact, have been lithographed, but no one has as yet been permitted to read them. The title will be simply 'Souvenirs du Maréchal de MacMahon, Duc de Magenta.' The interviewer says that the work consists of five goodly volumes—whether of manuscript or print he does not make clear. At any rate, the book promises to be of a certain bulk. It begins with MacMahon's experiences in the African expedition in 1837, when as a captain he did brilliant work at the siege of Constantine. By 1855, when the Crimean war began, he was a general, and he tells the story of his share in that campaign; then follows an account of the Kabyle expedition; then of the war with Italy, where he won his title; then of his return to Africa and his polemic with Cardinal Lavergne. This ends the first portion of the book. The second part treats of events since 1870—of the war with Prussia, the *Débâcle*, the work done by the Versailles troops, his own Presidency, and the rest. It is understood that he criticises with considerable severity that part of the conduct of the Franco-Prussian war for which he was not himself responsible; that he goes very fully into the Versailles episode, and that he opens much of the secret history of his own election, and especially of his dealings with the Right. The Marshal says that his book will appear at furthest before two years are over. It is likely enough to be in our hands much before that date—and an interesting book it will be.

—Everybody knows the three thanksgivings in the Jewish liturgy in which the pious Hebrew blesses the Eternal that he was not born an idolater, nor a slave, nor a woman. About a year ago Prof. James Darmesteter published a pamphlet in which he pointed out the fact that these thanksgivings resemble almost to the extent of identity certain invocations in the Parsee liturgy. The identical expressions, he held, were no doubt borrowed on one side or the other; but which was the original possessor of them? M. Darmesteter traced the Jewish thanksgivings back to the second century and to Palestine, where they were attributed to a pupil of the great Rabbi Akiba. The Persian thanksgivings he holds to be of a date somewhere between the fourth and seventh centuries, when there was considerable intercourse between the Persian court and learned Jews. The reciprocal influence of Judaism and Zoroastrianism is one of the more tempting of

the fields of research that lie open to the modern scholar. An item towards the discussion was offered in the *Academy* of June 25 in a letter upon M. Darmesteter's liturgical pamphlet by Mr. J. Murray Mitchell. He finds in both the Parsee and the Hebrew thanksgivings echoes of earlier Greek philosophers. Diogenes Laertius, in his life of Thales, says: He used to say that he was thankful to fortune for three things—first, because he had been born a man and not a beast; next, that he was a man and not a woman; thirdly, that he was a Greek and not a barbarian. Other slightly different forms of the same thought occur elsewhere, and are attributed variously to Thales, or Socrates, or Plato. Not to go minutely into the extremely important question of dates, it may be said roughly that the saying in question may well have been familiar among the Greeks as early as the third century before Christ, and was certainly familiar to them by the middle of the first century of the Christian era. So they antedate both the Jewish and the Parsee liturgies. The Jews doubtless—or most likely—borrowed from the Greeks; but from whom did the Persians borrow? Possibly from the Jews; M. Darmesteter would no doubt hold this view. But the Greeks, and especially their philosophers, had an influence upon Persia far greater than is commonly supposed, and greater than we commonly realize to ourselves. It would no doubt be extravagant to compare it with the influence of French thought upon Russia, but it is analogous to that.

—The latest contribution to the literature of witchcraft and of demoniacal possession comes to us from Munich, Bavaria, in the form of a pamphlet of thirteen pages entitled 'Die Teufelsaustreibung in Wemding. Nach dem Berichte des P. Aurelian für das Volk kritisch beleuchtet von Richard Trüfels.' The official report of the exorcist, Father Aurelian, who cast the devil out of a boy ten years of age in the church of the Capuchin cloister at Wemding, July 13 and 14, 1891, is printed in full and reads like a chapter from the 'Malleus Maleficarum,' or some mediæval dissertation on demonology. In his introduction, Herr Trüfels asserts that no true Christian, whether Catholic or Protestant, and no devout Jew can question for a moment the reality of demoniacal possession. It is a belief which is based upon the universal assent of mankind, as embodied in the traditions of all nations of ancient and modern times, and confirmed by the unequivocal testimony of the Old and New Testaments and by the teaching and practice of the Catholic Church. He also gives the "signs of possession" and the methods of healing it (exorcisms, sacraments, holy water, etc.) as prescribed by ecclesiastical rituals. On this point Father Aurelian expresses himself still more strongly: "Whoever presumes to deny possession confesses thereby that he has gone astray from the doctrine of the Catholic Church; but he will believe in possession when he himself is in the possession of the devil in hell. As for me, I have the authority of two bishops," namely, the Rt. Rev. Pancratius of Augsburg and Leopold of Eichstadt. An interesting volume bearing in part upon the same subject is Adolf Harnack's 'Medicinisches aus der ältesten Kirchengeschichte' (Leipzig: Hinrich). The work is divided into six chapters, which treat of the earliest Christian physicians, the views held by Christians of the first three centuries concerning dietetics, therapeutics, physiology, psychology, diseases, exorcisms, and, in general, of the Gospel of the Saviour as a gospel of healing. Christ conceived of himself

as a physician sent to them that are sick, and both he and his disciples, in proclaiming their mission to mankind, are fond of using imagery drawn from the healing art. The same tendency is observable in the writings of the fathers. The book begins with an account of "Luke, the beloved physician," who, besides being the author of the third Gospel, has also ascribed to him by tradition the Acts of the Apostles and portions of the Epistle to the Hebrews—his last upon the strength of certain anatomical, diætic, and therapeutic allusions (Heb. iv. 12; v. 12-14; xii. 12), which do not, however, imply any special knowledge, and might have been written by any person of ordinary intelligence.

RAMSAY'S LANCASTER AND YORK.

Lancaster and York: A Century of English History (A.D. 1399-1485). By Sir James H. Ramsay of Bamf, Bart., M.A., barrister-at-law; late student of Christ Church. With maps and illustrations. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THERE have hitherto been some strange gaps in English historiography. We have had no good special history of the period of Lancaster and York, of that of the early Tudors, or of that of Anne. Sir James Ramsay has undertaken to give us a history of the period of Lancaster and York, and he seems to have done his work well. The materials are not copious or of the best kind. In parts there is little more to be made out of them by fair means than a dry skeleton, but we are thankful to a writer who does not try to embellish his story by squeezing out of the materials more than they really have in them. Surfeited with the imaginary and sensational, we rejoice in a change to the sober and conscientious. We can even dispense with what is called philosophy, so long as we are assured that the facts are given correctly and in their true connection. A historian whose facts are untrustworthy was the other day defended by an admirer as giving what was better than fact, "the spirit of history." We have had too much of the spirit of history in this sense. Sir James Ramsay is singularly abstemious in the use of the paint-box. Once we thought we had caught him in resorting to it. It was where, on the eve of Agincourt, he speaks of Henry as "gaining a view of the dark squadrons of the French slowly wending their way upwards along a hollow." But on reference to the authority (the 'Gesta') we find *tetros cuneos Gallicorum*; and though *tetros* for "dark" would be a mediæval barbarism, the interpretation is probably right.

The York and Lancaster period falls into two parts, the first part comprising the last portion of the hundred-years' war between England and France, the second the wars of the Roses. The wars of the Roses, with all their havoc—material, moral, social, and political—were the natural sequel of the hundred-years' war. The restless, turbulent, bloodthirsty, and rapacious temper formed in raiding over France showed itself, when there was no longer an outlet for it abroad, in civil broil at home; and from "spanning for French crowns" the nobles took to "spanning" for each other's estates and heads. Here was another verification of the Greek poet's saying, that Ate has a numerous progeny of children like their parent. We may extend the observation still further if we remember that the idea of a dominion embracing at once English and French territory was a legacy of the Norman conquest. The feelings of the English and

French nations towards each other have hardly to this hour got clear of the hatred contracted during a century of murderous struggle brought on by chimerical ambition. If Joan of Arc is canonized, as has been proposed, the canonization will be a fresh outletting of the waters of bitterness from the historical Marah. The imperfect unification of the British Islands which is at this moment showing itself, not only in the Irish demand for home rule, but in the recrudescence of Scotch and Welsh separatism, is the fruit of the diversion to fields beyond the sea of the energies which ought to have been steadily devoted to the consolidation of the island realm. The only redeeming features of the senseless and barren struggle were an advance of courtesy and humanity in war among the nobles of the two countries, the benefit of which, however, did not extend to the common people; and the successes of the English archers, which, as the archers were a plebeian infantry, helped with the invention of cannon to subvert military aristocracy.

It is due to Edward III., with whom this train of woes began, to say that in his case the French King had been unquestionably the aggressor, and that Edward's assumption of the title of "King of France" was not so much an act of extravagant ambition as a measure of war. But no such excuse can be made for Henry V. His intervention in France was invited by the Burgundian faction, it is true; but this, while it tempted, did not justify or palliate his ambition. He seems to have had an intense belief in his right to the French crown, and to have been confirmed in that belief and stimulated to act upon it by the ecclesiastics. He said on his death-bed that as his cause was righteous, the guilt of bloodshed could not lie at his door—"of that, he had been assured by sage and holy men before ever he drew the sword." The commons, as Sir James Ramsay shows, were by no means eager for the war, while prelates spoke heartily in its favor. Shakspeare has embalmed the tradition which puts into the mouth of Archbishop Chicheley a speech advocating the invasion of France as a mode of diverting the minds of the King and people from religious change and the secularization of Church property. It has been proved that this speech could not really have been delivered; yet Sir James Ramsay may be right in surmising that the fiction had its origin in a fact. Religious change and the secularization of Church property were in the air. Archbishop Chicheley, when he founded a college at Oxford, dedicated it specially to the performance of masses for the souls of those who had fallen at Agincourt, which seems to show that he felt some personal responsibility for that carnage. If this view of the case is well founded, we have another illustration of the tendency of Church establishments; for Archbishop Chicheley and his colleagues would hardly have instigated an invasion of France merely for the purpose of putting an end to a doctrinal controversy in England, had not the ascendancy of the impugned doctrines been essential to the retention by the clergy of enormous wealth and power.

Freeman used to say that he never could tell whether Henry IV. was the best or the worst of kings. Sir James Ramsay seems to feel no doubt that Henry had Richard II. murdered in prison; not, however, out of cruelty but out of policy, to put an end to the conspiracies in Richard's favor, while conscience, in those days of religious formalism, might be technically salved by starving the victim to death, which, it seems, was done, instead of shedding

his blood. Henry's political alliance with the reactionary clergy, which bore fruit in the statute *De heretico comburendo*, and the burning of Lollards are also to be scored against him, though by way of compensation he gave a startling and stunning blow to clerical privilege by beheading Archbishop Scrope for treason. On the other hand, his reign was constitutional, and the credit seems partly due to his own temper, though the novelty of his dynasty, the doubtfulness of his title from the legitimists' point of view, and the restiveness of the great nobles, who regarded him with jealousy as one of themselves raised above their heads, made the support of the commons indispensable. Sir James Ramsay paints him as painstaking and industrious, merciful, temperate, and domestic, and sets down his character and talents as those of a good official, giving him credit for bequeathing to his son a strongly-founded throne, and for having effected this by parliamentary tact and regard to constitutional principles. The words, "uneasy lies the head that wears a crown," and the speech of which they form a part, could not have been put into more appropriate lips. If a life of incessant trouble, care, danger, and strife could atone for crime, the soul of Henry IV. was absolved for the murder of Richard II.

The scene in Shakspeare where Prince Henry steals the crown is proved to be impossible by the circumstances of the King's death. But the Shaksperian version of Henry V.'s youth, banished to fiction by Mr. Endell Tyler, is restored to history by Sir James Ramsay. It seems that all the sons of Henry IV. were wild, and that they even played practical jokes much resembling the escapade at Gadshill. Prince Henry did quarrel with his father, and even sought to force him to abdicate. He also was at enmity with Judge Gascoigne. On his accession his character changed, and he became a great man of action. As a king, though stern and inexorable, he was righteous. His rule in France was admitted by the French to be good; his camp was a model of discipline; and he strictly restrained excesses in war. His ambition, however, was the ruin of his dynasty. His conquests fired the heart of the nation; their inevitable loss filled it with rage and shame; and Sir James Ramsay is warranted in saying that the fall of Henry VI. was the Nemesis of Agincourt.

Sir James Ramsay seems to think that in the wars of the Roses the House of Lancaster represented the more constitutional, that of York the stronger and more arbitrary, form of government. We can hardly see on what this judgment is founded. The government of the first Lancastrian king could not be arbitrary, because the dynasty had not taken root. But it was firmly rooted at the accession of his grandson, as its tenacity through the storms which followed proved. So far as we can see, in the mist of a very imperfectly recorded period, the rule of the camarilla which governed in the name of the imbecile Henry VI., though weak, was not constitutional. It certainly was irresponsible. Margaret of Anjou was not likely to have brought constitutional principles from her home. Her letters, which have been preserved, seem to betray a tendency to favoritism and a habit of interference with public justice. Her conduct in the war was wolfish. Gloucester died a captive in the hands of Margaret and Suffolk and at the moment when they had reason to fear his denunciation of the secret session of Mairé. That he died of chagrin is surely a very charitable hypothesis. London and the other cities, which would generally be favorable to popular

government, seem to have been on the Yorkist side, though this may have been partly due to the folly of Margaret in bringing down upon southern England a marauding body of Scotch auxiliaries whose fatal aid she had purchased by the cession of Berwick. The monarchy of Edward IV., founded in successful war and on the ruin of the baronage, then almost the sole trustee of political liberty, could not fail to be arbitrary apart from any political traditions of his house. The humiliations, distractions, and weaknesses of the camarilla Government were sufficient to account for its fall and for the confusion which ensued. But the contest soon assumed the character of a murderous blood-feud between two groups of families, in which all principles of action, except mutual hatred or personal ambition and rapacity, seem to have been lost. The greatest politician on the stage was Warwick, in whose tortuous and unscrupulous career we can trace no public aim.

Sir James Ramsay has not overlooked, but he does not seem to have quite sufficiently marked, the critical change made in the situation by the birth of Prince Edward. It does not appear that York's ambition was very daring, unmeasured, or precipitate. He would probably have been satisfied with the Regency, or, supposing the King legally capable of government, with a fair share of power and an assurance of the succession. But the birth of a son to the King and Margaret shut the door of compromise, and compelled York either to claim the crown or to retire into a private station, in which, after what had been done, he would hardly have been safe under Margaret of Anjou. A similar change in a political situation was wrought by the birth of a son to James II., which, by shutting out the prospect of deliverance at the tyrant's death, compelled the national leaders to strike without delay. In both cases the child was declared by the adverse party supposititious. We know that in the case of James's son the suspicion, though not unnatural, was unfounded. But Prince Edward was born after eight years of barren wedlock, when the King was not only imbecile in mind, but so weak in body that he could not rise from his chair without assistance. Margaret fought for the boy's right with a fierce and indomitable energy which might seem to show that he was her own child. But she had hatred and ambition, both most intense, to stimulate her, apart from maternal love.

A similar remark may be made with regard to the murder of the Princes in the Tower by Richard III. Sir James Ramsay, we venture to think, hardly appreciates the effect of this incident. Public horror does not seem to have been excited by Richard's usurpation, if indeed the doctrine of legitimacy was so well established that a King who had been recognized by Parliament and crowned by the Church would be generally deemed a usurper. The people had become inured to violent changes of dynasty, and they had the strongest reasons for preferring the rule of an able adult like Richard to that of a boy under whose name another camarilla would have borne sway. They had also become familiar with all ordinary butchery, and would have taken the execution by Richard of Hastings and other political enemies almost as a matter of course. When Richard was at Oxford on his royal progress, Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, a prelate of the highest character, came from Winchester expressly to meet and entertain the King at Magdalen College, of which the Bishop was the founder. But the murder of the two young

princes by their uncle seems to have touched the hearts of the common people, and called forth against Richard that general execration which made him morally weak while in numbers he was strong, and unnerved the arms of his soldiers on the decisive field. As to the fact of the murder, Sir James Ramsay has no doubt, nor can any doubt be reasonably felt. Whose were the two skeletons, corresponding to the ages of the two boys, which were found under the staircase leading up to the chapel in the White Tower in 1674?

The materials for the financial part of the history are more complete and trustworthy than for the rest. Sir James Ramsay has made good use of them. The bearing of the finance on the general history is never to be left out of sight. It is an important fact that the old feudal and landed revenues of the Crown in the time of Henry IV. probably did not amount to 25,000 pounds, so that the Royal Government could not be carried on without the aid of the commons, which was doled out reluctantly and sparingly—often, indeed, in wholly inadequate measure; the popular notion being that the King ought to live "of his own."

The portraits are very interesting. The features of Henry IV. are solid and heavy, such as that of a "good official," to repeat Sir James Ramsay's term, might be. His face is that of a sort of English Vespasian. We could hardly discern the force of the conqueror in the face of Henry V., but it bespeaks sternness. On the face of Henry VI. disaster is clearly written. His face in boyhood is weak, in manhood plainly imbecile. Edward IV. had a great reputation for beauty, which his portrait hardly bears out, while it does bear out his reputation for sensuality. He was evidently a great soldier. Of the comparative humanity which Sir James Ramsay ascribes to him we do not clearly see the proof. He butchered the leaders of the other party without mercy, and if he spared the commons, it must be remembered that butchering the common people in England was not so safe a practice as in France. In the face of Richard III. there is nothing villainous, though the look is gloomy as well as careworn. He founded religious institutions, he encouraged letters by permitting the free importation of books, and the legislative record of his short reign is good. The age, in England as well as in Italy, was a moral and religious interregnum in which a politician might be unscrupulous even to the extent of committing murder without being naturally a superlative villain.

It is derogatory to the Clarendon Press that these important volumes should have been allowed to be published without an index.

WHYMPER AMONG THE ANDES.

Travels amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. By Edward Whympers. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. xxiv, 456. Maps and illustrations.

Supplementary Appendix to the Same. By Edward Whympers, with Contributions by H. W. Bates, F.R.S., T. G. Bonney, D.Sc., F.R.S., F. D. Godman, F.R.S., and Others. London: John Murray. 1891. Pp. xxii, 147.

In these days of hasty book-making, the deliberateness of an author who delays twelve years after the collection of his data before giving the results of his labors to the world, cannot but challenge admiration. Mr. Whympers visited Ecuador during the years 1879-80, and there performed a work which will link

his name as inseparably with the plateaus and mountains of that remarkable country as those of La Condamine and Humboldt before him. This may seem exaggeration to those who know Mr. Whymper only as the author of that light and sketchy narrative, 'Scrambles amongst the Alps'; but in twenty years a great change has come over him. The mere clambering of a dangerous peak for the empty honor of bringing away "the giant's head in a bag," is no longer the incentive to his excursions. An earnest scientific purpose has replaced the boyish enthusiasm of earlier years. He is as indefatigable as ever in climbing mountains, he revels in lofty heights, and courts the perilous *arête* and treacherous glacier; but he now seeks by the most painstaking efforts to establish elevations with absolute accuracy, to determine the effects of high altitudes upon the human system, and to ascertain the characteristics and utmost limits of the flora and fauna of these regions.

He attempted the ascent of eleven of the loftiest Ecuadorian peaks, and attained the summit of nine, among the latter being Chimborazo, Cotopaxi, Antisana, and Cayambe. Chimborazo had previously been considered inaccessible, the failures of Humboldt and Boussingault to accomplish the ascent being well known. It must be remembered, however, that these earlier explorers were inadequately equipped for such a task; neither were they as experienced in this special kind of work. Mr. Whymper, on the other hand, is an adept, and went prepared for every difficulty that might arise. His careful details of his outfit, and his accurate descriptions of his methods of work at high altitudes, will serve as an admirable guide to others who may be tempted to pursue similar investigations in future; and the rich and unexpected field for the student of natural history which Mr. Whymper has discovered will surely stimulate many an expedition into the snowy Andes. Previous travellers have given little attention to the insect life of elevated regions, and the specimens which have been observed have usually been regarded as stragglers from lower levels. Mr. Whymper brought home 160 species collected between the altitudes of 8,000 and 16,660 feet above the sea; of which 60 per cent. were new to science. In addition to these, which were all of considerable size, he rejected a still larger number of small insects on account of the difficulty of inducing specialists to undertake their identification. Coleoptera were the most abundant, existing under stones and in loose detritus, but eight other orders were represented, and butterflies (*Colias alticola*), and several species of moths were taken as high as 16,000 feet. Two species of crustaceans were also found as high as 13,300 feet, and yet, with all this, Mr. Whymper announces that his time was so occupied in following out the other objects of his journey that he could make only the most cursory search for examples of the Andean fauna.

The Appendix is almost wholly devoted to the classification and description of the specimens, of which the Coleoptera are described by H. W. Bates, David Sharp, Henry S. Gorham, A. Sidney Oliff, and Martin Jacoby; the Hymenoptera by Peter Cameron; the Lepidoptera by F. Ducane Godman and Osbert Salvin; the Rhynchota by W. L. Distant; the Crustacea by E. J. Miers, A. E. Eaton, and T. R. R. Stebbing; and the Reptilia and Batrachia by G. A. Boulenger. Prof. T. G. Bonney adds a note on the rocks from the Andes brought home by Mr. Whymper, from which it appears that the geology of this portion of the Andean

range is very simple, consisting entirely of andesite, except in the case of the mountain known as Sara-Urcu, which is composed of metamorphic rocks. Still more remarkable is the fact that this widely distributed andesite is highly basic, in many cases being almost quartzless, in which respect the Ecuadorian rocks are markedly different from those to the southward in Peru, where acid rocks, if not predominating, are at least as abundant as basic species.

Mr. Whymper is inclined to be somewhat severe upon former travellers, and in several instances his arraignment of them is not made in a spirit of charity. On the other hand, one can but share his astonishment that so excellent an observer as Humboldt should have asserted the non-existence of glaciers in Ecuador, especially when he had partially ascended Chimborazo, which Whymper saw "crowned by glacier and streaming with glaciers." In fact, there were very few peaks on which Whymper did not find them; and the positions in which they were found are highly instructive, as showing how many conditions besides mere elevation above the sea affect the glacial limit and snow line. Whymper is for discarding the term "snow line" altogether, as being indefinable and meaningless; and with good reason, when the limit of permanent snow on the equator varies from 14,000 feet to 16,700 feet. It is noticeable that the limits of snow and of glacier are uniformly lower on the eastern than on the western peaks of the Ecuadorian Andes; and in the case of Sara-Urcu, the most easterly of all, which Mr. Whymper practically discovered, the glacier descends as low as 14,000 feet. This mountain is almost perpetually concealed by immense cloud banks, formed by condensation from the moisture-laden airs which blow continuously from east to west across the basin of the Amazon. It may be that this condensation is so excessive when these airs first sweep up the Andean slopes into higher altitudes, that the precipitation of snow is more rapid than its melting—thus producing glaciers extending to the singularly low elevation observed on Sara-Urcu; and furthermore, the Amazonian air-current, being robbed of so much of its moisture, would need to rise to considerably higher elevations before the vapor tension would be sufficiently reduced to cause further precipitation, which would account for the greater heights of the snow limit on the western peaks.

The elevations determined by Mr. Whymper are unquestionably the most accurate ever made in Ecuador, unless we except those made by the famous Academicians over a somewhat more restricted area. As evidence of the remarkable accuracy of the work done by this body of scientists 150 years ago, the altitude assigned for Chimborazo, which they calculated trigonometrically from a base line whose elevation had been established by mercurial barometer, was 20,592 feet; and now from Whymper's careful barometrical measurements the elevation is found to be 20,498 feet. Whymper's measurements were made by two mercurial barometers, carefully corrected at the Kew Observatory, in addition to which semi-diurnal readings of the barometer and thermometer were made at Guayaquil throughout his stay in Ecuador, thus enabling the most accurate calculations to be made. He also carried with him a number of aneroids, which were read daily at various elevations, and served to show how utterly unreliable these instruments are. He was able, however, to ascertain that some sort of regularity obtained in the error of each instrument, so that

by long acquaintance with any particular aneroid some approximation to accuracy may be arrived at. One thing clearly shown is, that the air-pump test really indicates nothing as to the instrument's probable behavior under long-continued use at high altitudes. His examination into the question of boiling-point determination of elevation adds fresh confirmation to every careful experimenter's belief in its unreliability. The tables of air temperature and body temperature in the high lands of Ecuador give further value to Mr. Whymper's work.

One object of his journey, of which he makes much, is the ability of the human system to accustom itself to the low pressures prevailing at high altitudes, but we do not feel that he has given us conclusive evidence regarding it. We know that he and his assistants were seized with mountain sickness at 16,664 feet, and in a few hours had recovered and were not again attacked, although they ascended to 20,498 feet, passed one night at 19,500 feet, six nights at 17,285 feet, and ten nights at 16,664 feet. While much has been claimed, we are not certain that any one has ever remained so long at the most excessive of these elevations; but many men have lived for weeks at elevations of 17,000 feet, and have exacted hard labor from workmen at that height. We know that there are mines in South America at an elevation of nearly 16,000 feet, and the Galera Tunnel on the Lima and Oroya Railroad, which is 4,000 feet long, is 15,645 feet above the sea, while the Galera Pass, which has been used for centuries, is 17,574 feet. The ability of men to work at such elevations is then clearly proved. The effect of low pressures upon the human system varies with the individual, and is as defiant of rules as the "snow line."

While the serious intent of the book is continually apparent, there is much sketchy narrative, which makes it a most interesting record of travel, and reveals incidentally the lives and customs of the people of these Andean valleys. It is pleasing to note Mr. Whymper's observation of the thirst for information among the common classes, which so many travellers have remarked as characteristic of the half-castes of other portions of the Andean region. Mr. Whymper's style is simple, direct, free from straining after startling effects; and in this very simplicity of diction there is often a majesty which is in perfect keeping with the sublimity of the scenes portrayed. Typographically the book is very handsome, and the illustrations are abundant and well executed. There is an ample index, an inset facsimile of Maldonado's Map of Ecuador, with a large route map, corrected by Whymper's own triangulations, folded into a pocket-cover.

ENGLISH WATER-COLOR PAINTING.

A History of Water-Color Painting in England. By Gilbert R. Redgrave. [Illustrated Handbooks of Art, edited by E. J. Poynter, R. A.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. REDGRAVE has given us in a condensed form all that is historically known about water-color painting from the earliest times to our own day, with a complete biographical dictionary of the painters who practised this art and a history of the formation of the water-color societies. The space in which all this information has to be given is too limited for a subject so full of interest and which takes so prominent a place in the history of British art. Considering the many men of

distinct genius who have practised the art in a great variety of methods, we should have been glad to hear more concerning these methods, as well as further details of their lives, with statements of their relative importance and their influence on the painters around them. To Turner a whole chapter has been very properly devoted, but such names as Blake, Stothard, Rossetti, Frederick Walker receive but inadequate notice, a few lines being devoted to each.

Mr. Redgrave does not believe that the evolution of English water-color painting can be traced to the miniature-painters of the Elizabethan Age through the Dutch school of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Adrian Ostade and his contemporaries and followers. He thinks it much more likely that they developed from the artisans who tinted maps, woodcuts, and engravings in the sixteenth century. This work was called "washing," and was done in transparent color. An authority of 1598, Master Richard Haydocke, who wrote 'A Tracte Containing the Artes of Curious Paintinge, Carvinge, and Buildinge,' says: "Of Distemper I note three kinds: In Sise used by our common painters upon cloath, walles, &c, In Washing with gummed colors, but tempered very thinne and bodillesse, used in mappes, printed stories, &c., And in Limming, where the colors are likewise mixed with gummess, but laied with a thick body and substance wherein much arte and neatnesse is required." Of these three methods the first remains the same to the present day, the common distemper-painting of the journeyman workman. From the second, "washing," was slowly developed, through the antiquarian drawings of topographers, the water-color painting of our own day; while the third, called by Haydocke "limming," is the tempera painting which the Egyptians practised so skilfully four thousand years ago, and the Etruscans and Romans also used for mural decorations. It was not until the brothers Van Eyck taught the use of oil as a vehicle for binding colors together that any other method of painting existed in Europe. Vasari relates how rapidly in his time oil-painting was taking the place of fresco and tempera in Italy. In tempera painting, white is largely mixed with the pigments to prevent the transmission of light from the ground, while, on the contrary, the ground should show through transparent washes in water-color painting as practised by the early painters in that medium. Raphael's cartoons at South Kensington Museum are examples of tempera painting on paper, while Mantegna's "Triumph of Julius Caesar" at Hampton Court is painted on canvas in tempera also. The old illuminators of Church books, of which we have exquisite specimens of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, worked in tempera; so did the miniature-painters of the Tudor and Stuart times. These portraitists painted with white or body color, and used gold profusely in the ornamentation of their dresses and accessories; it was not till later on that large masses of transparent color were used for draperies, etc. Other changes in the method of miniature-painting took place in the seventeenth century.

It seems evident that the use of water colors was known on the Continent before Charles I.'s time. There is mention "of a limned picture . . . of the Emperor Rodolphus II. painted upon parchment being transparent, to be seen on both sides holding against the sky," the work of Frossley, imperial court limner during Rudolph's reign, 1576-1612. There is a fine collection of water colors by

early Dutch masters at the British Museum, beginning in the middle of the seventeenth century. These Mr. Redgrave has studied carefully, and gives us some account of their methods. Adrian Ostade (1610-1685) is the best known. He used a ground of a gray tint, carefully drawing the outline of his landscape with a reed pen, and filling in the shadows with brown and gray—preserving the same chiaroscuro as in Dutch etchings. These studies of Ostade have much the appearance of monochromes which have been tinted subsequently. Fyt, Dusart, and Backhuysen are among the most successful artists in this style; but although after Ostade many changes took place, all artists used a gray ground and did not attempt pure local color on a white ground, which is the manner of the English school. For this reason Mr. Redgrave feels convinced that the English artists derived their practice of water-color art rather from the humble topographer than from the expert painters of the Continent. Dayes, a topographical draughtsman and miniature-painter of the early nineteenth century, published in 1808 a book of 'Instructions for Drawing and Coloring Landscapes' which has the details of the prevailing practice. Dayes, being a contemporary of Sandby and Cozens, would know their method, and therefore the water-color art of to-day must have been based on these precepts. Mr. Redgrave says:

"He describes very minutely the mode of laying on the colors in the different parts of the drawing; the shadows and middle tints, he tells us, should be made with Prussian blue and a brown Indian ink, the sky with 'Prussian blue rather tender,' the shades of the clouds with Prussian blue and Indian ink; and he advises working forward from the distance into the foreground, leaving out the blue in the advance until the foreground is reached, which is to be worked with brown Indian ink only. Finally, the darker parts of the foreground are to be retouched with Vandyke brown. This would seem to accord in every respect with the method pursued by Cozens in his best period, and it was on such a foundation as this that the true water-color art of to-day was based. While we may in stance Cozens as a genuine exponent of the older school, we must concede to him also the credit of being one of the first to shake himself free from the traditions of the topographers and to exalt water-color painting to the rank of a fine art."

It is interesting to note the encouragement extended by wealthy patrons to this fresh development of art. William Alexander was chosen to accompany Lord Macartney's embassy to China in 1792; Cozens went to Italy to make sketches for Mr. Beckford. George III. was the patron of Paul Sandby, and the Earl of Warwick travelled through Italy with John Smith, who acquired from this time the distinctive title of Warwick Smith. The demand for book illustrations also contributed greatly to the success of water-color drawings. The publishers were employing many of the members of the Royal Academy at the time of its foundation, and we hear of Cipriani and Angelica Kauffman as being especially successful at book work. The Royal Academy, founded in 1768, does not seem to have offered any very liberal advantages to water-color painters, for the miniature-room to which their work was consigned was a dingy room on a lower floor of Somerset House, which, besides the water colors, contained such pictures in oil as were not considered worthy of a place on the upper floor.

Among the men who seem to have been most prominent in the early stages of this art was Thomas Girtin, born in 1775. He pushed the practice of water-color painting to greater perfection than any of his predecessors. He

studied the grander aspects of mountain scenery and finished his drawings directly from nature, which was an innovation at the time. His example seems to have had great influence on the rising school, although he died at the early age of twenty-seven. It is unfortunate that most of his drawings were burned in a fire at his brother's house, and that, owing to his constant use of indigo, which has been found to be a very fleeting color, many of the examples we possess are in a faded condition. Some unknown friend (and it is suggested that it may have been Turner) raised a monument over his remains in St. Paul's Churchyard. Ruskin, in a letter to Thomas Girtin's grandson, says of this artist: "He is often as impressive to me as Nature herself; nor do I doubt that Turner owed more to his teaching and companionship than to his own genius in the first years of his life." The art of Turner covers the whole epoch of the development of water-color art, his early studies being of the accurate, topographical style, showing little of the genius and originality of his later productions. From the time of his election as an Associate of the Royal Academy he gave up literal imitation of nature, and allowed his imagination to have full play; it tinged every subject he touched with a magic brush. Through him water-color art in landscape reached its uttermost expression and perfection, and he discovered all its resources.

It was in 1802 that the water-color painters began to consider that it would be well for them to hold a distinct exhibition of their own, forming themselves into a society. They were some time deliberating this plan, which had been put forward by William F. Wells, fearing the antagonism of the Royal Academy; so that it was not till 1804 that the society was constituted, consisting of ten original members, namely, Hills, Pyne, Shelley, Wells, Nattes, Gilpin, Nicholson, Pocock, and the brothers John and Cornelius Varley. At their first meeting they elected by ballot six members: Barret, Cristall, Glover, Havell, and Rigaud. Shelley was elected treasurer and Hills the secretary. The rules were drawn up with exemplary prudence, the number of members fixed at twenty-four, the officers to be elected annually, and an annual exhibition of original works was determined on. Roget, in his 'History of the Old Water-Color Society,' which Mr. Redgrave has made use of for many important details, tells us that "out of the profits of the exhibition, should there be any after payment of expenses, a sum was to be set apart for the expenses of the following year, and the residue was to be divided among the members in sums proportioned to the value of the drawings sent and retained for exhibition." April 22, 1805, was the date of the first exhibition, in rooms in Lower Brook Street built by Vandergucht; the price of admission, one shilling, included the catalogue. An innovation which attracted attention was the presence of an attendant with price-list of pictures, who put down the names of buyers in a book and took a deposit of ten per cent. on the purchase money. No less than twelve thousand persons visited the exhibition during the six weeks it remained open, and the amount of money taken by the sale of drawings was £2,860. The average price of the drawings was about ten pounds, eleven shillings, according to Roget. The number of pictures exhibited was 275. After all expenses were paid, the members had a surplus of £272 to divide among themselves. The second year they elected associate exhibitors, who were limited to five works each, and they determined to elect two

new members from this class every year, until the full number of twenty-four was attained. The success of these exhibitions continued, the visitors and sale of pictures increasing, till 1812. It is characteristic of the more chivalrous spirit of that time that the one lady exhibitor, Miss Byrne, was exempted from any liability for losses which might arise, while accorded an equal share in the surplus money. The exhibitions increased in interest, as years went on, and frequently, almost yearly, changed their rooms; but after 1812 the public interest visibly declined, and the sales decreased so much that the members became anxious and called a meeting. Glover proposed that in future oil pictures should also

be admitted to their exhibitions. This proposal, which nullified the very object of the society, was vigorously opposed by some of the members, who, on its being carried definitely, withdrew. The original scheme of exhibiting water colors alone was reverted to in 1821. Since that time the society, ever increasing in success and prosperity, has been established in Pall Mall East, and in 1882 her Majesty gave permission that it should call itself Royal.

Mr. Redgrave also gives us a full account of the origin and growth of the Institute, still another pure body of water-color painters; and he devotes a chapter to the materials used by those who practise this art and to the re-

cent experiments testing the stability of water colors, with the conclusions arrived at by the Committee of Experts. After the endless and excited discussions of a few years ago between the chief authorities on the subject, it will be reassuring to those who paint and those who buy water colors to learn that, after the severe tests the colors were put to, they are fully as permanent as, and less exposed to risks of change than, oil colors. The book is full of interesting facts too briefly told to make it very readable, but for reference it will be found most valuable. The illustrations are from the splendid collections of South Kensington and the British Museum.

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